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# **Attitudes towards the inclusion of pupils with disabilities in Zambian primary schools, and their implications**

EDUCATION

UNIVERSITY

Thesis submitted in fulfilment of the regulations for the  
award of Master of Philosophy (MPhil)

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**Faculty of Education and Language Studies**

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## **Abstract**

I was motivated to undertake this research by concerns that arose from my professional and personal experiences of marginalisation from the education system. I was concerned that students with disabilities were not being offered equality of access to the mainstream curriculum despite public expression of support for inclusion by the Zambian government.

This study investigates teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education in Zambia in two primary schools which already have some experience of inclusion. The research was carried out using both questionnaires and interviews. The findings indicate an overall very positive view among teachers of the rights of all children, including those with disabilities, to education. Almost all teachers accepted the principle that: "all pupils should be educated in general education classrooms" and "education is a fundamental right for all children including those with disabilities". However, when it came to practice, there was division between teachers with and without experience. Teachers without experience were positive to inclusion of these children with disabilities, while teachers with experience were negative to inclusion of children with hearing and visual impairments. Respondents commented that major barriers to education for all children, particularly for those with disabilities, include a lack of resources, teachers and legislation to support inclusion. There is also some evidence that traditional attitudes to children with disabilities in Zambia may militate against their inclusion into mainstream schools.

# **Chapter 1    Personal rationale and aims**

## **Introduction**

In Zambia, since the launching of the latest Education Policy, 'Educating our Future' (1996) mainstream education has been promoted in Zambian primary, secondary and tertiary education institutions. Following this policy directive, regular education schools have been asked to include all pupils, including those with disabilities, into general education classrooms unless such pupils have severe impairments and need residential special schooling, which, according to the policy, will continue (GRZ, 1996)

While recognizing the importance attached to this policy framework, the views of both general and special education teachers about their thinking concerning inclusive education need to be heard. In Zambia like many developing nations of the world, teacher attitudes have barely been investigated to ascertain whether they welcome the idea of Jomtien 'Education for all' (Katwishi, 1995) and the Salamanca Declaration on inclusion (Nyambose, 1997; Kalabula, 1992; Zindi, 1997).

This study sets out to assess the attitudes of teachers towards inclusion of pupils with different impairments in primary general classrooms in Zambia in schools which already have some experience of inclusion. This has relevance for me having been a trainer. At primary education there are more pupils than the secondary sector. It also has relevance for Zambia.

Teachers are key players in the implementation of inclusive education in Zambia. It is timely to assess their attitudes following the education policy for all

which resulted in the adoption of inclusion policies and practices by a few schools. This investigation is in line with what Pajeras (1992) intimates, that attitudes are the best indicators of the decisions individuals make throughout their lives (Ainscow, 1991). Negative attitudes drag down the process of inclusion. If change is desirable in reforming education systems and programmes to give schools new inclusive meaning in the 21<sup>st</sup> century, change has to be understood and accepted by those involved (Fullan, 1982; 1991). Developing schools that cater for a wide range of pupils in both urban and rural areas require the articulation of a clear, forceful policy on inclusion, together with adequate financial provision, an effective public information effort to combat prejudice, an extensive programme of orientation, staff training and the provision of necessary support services, and the *creation of informed and positive attitudes*.

In an inclusion setting teachers must be willing to modify curriculum, facilitate a positive climate, and have positive expectations for behaviour and achievement for pupils with disabilities. Such attitudes are an important prerequisite to a teacher's willingness to carry these responsibilities out (Fender & Fieldler, 1990). 'Therefore,' Wilczenski (1992 p.307) states, 'it is important to measure the attitudes of teachers concerning the impact of inclusion for pupils with disabilities in the general education classroom'.

A teacher's attitude toward a pupil with a disability will affect the other pupils' attitudes as well. An important variable in the acceptance of a pupil with a disability by other pupils is the attitude of the teacher toward the pupil with disability (Kunzweiler, 1982).

Negative attitudes will breed negative attitudes, and positive attitudes and acceptance will breed positive attitudes and acceptance. The attitude of the general education teacher toward the child with a disability can influence the climate of the classroom (Stoler, 1992).

Very simply put, 'inclusion is about attitudes' (Millar, 1996:9). Attitudes clearly affect an inclusion programme's success, and studies of these attitudes may pave the way for ensuring its success.

The study reported here asked questions founded upon the review of literature in the following chapter, the gap in research and literature and the interest of the researcher:

1. What are Zambian teachers' attitudes to inclusive education as a model of educational service delivery at primary level?
2. What factors influence teacher' attitudes towards the inclusion of pupils with disabilities in general education classrooms?

## **Significance of the study**

Since the launch of 'Educating our future' (1996) a few schools in Zambia have adopted inclusion policies. Some teachers therefore now have some experience of inclusion. Given the importance of attitudes to the success of inclusion programmes, it is timely that there is an investigation of the attitudes of such teachers towards the inclusion of children with disabilities in mainstream classrooms. As noted above, few studies of teacher attitudes have been carried out at the level of the primary general education classroom towards the inclusion of pupils with disabilities in Zambia. This study therefore is expected to assist the Ministry of

Education, Special Education Department better to understand teacher attitudes and factors that may promote or act as a barrier to the inclusion of pupils with disabilities in general education classrooms in Zambia.

Policy makers, educational administrators, planners, researchers, inspectors of schools, curriculum developers, college and university lecturers, teachers, government and non-governmental organizations, parents, and all those interested in assessing, placing, education, training and providing welfare to persons with disabilities may find this study both useful and informative. Results from this study may make the following contributions to the development and improvement of schools for all in Zambia:

- The present study is the second of its kind at primary school level in Zambia. The first (Tembo, 2001) was a broad survey which indicated general support for inclusion. The current study was intended to be more in-depth. Therefore, it contributes to knowledge and debate on inclusive education nationally, regionally and, in the final analysis, globally. It is also hoped that the study will act as a springboard to further research on the democratization of education in Zambia;
- Educational planners may find the information and descriptive statistics obtained from this study useful to their understanding of current trends in the development and provision of educational services in schools. This may also in turn help them in policy measurement, evaluation, and implementation of decisions related to the development of education for all;

- Data on teacher attitudes may provide educational administrators with a basis upon which to predict teachers' reactions to an inclusive strategy;
- Knowledge of teachers' attitudes towards inclusion of pupils with impairments may assist in the planning and designing of appropriate university teacher education programmes and other pre-service teacher education related programmes to ensure that student teachers do not enter the field without having had an opportunity to develop positive attitudes towards the inclusion of pupils with disabilities into general education classrooms.

I also have a personal motivation for carrying out this study which relates closely to my own experience of exclusion from education as I describe below.

## **Personal motivation**

Attitudes toward pupils with disabilities are deeply rooted in historical and social contexts (Markova and Johada, 1992). This study investigates teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education in Zambia. I am aware that my attitude towards pupils who experience difficulty in learning or have physical difficulties of some sort is influenced by my past experiences. My rights orientation comes from my own experience of being marginalized and excluded from education as well as reading literature on international policies on human rights encouraged by UN policy statements such as the Declaration on Human Rights (1948) which stipulates the rights of all people including children, the Convention on the Rights of Children (1989) which imposed a series of duties that are owed to children by parents/guardian and Standard Rules on the Equalization of Opportunities



for Persons with Disabilities (1993), which stated that educational authorities are responsible for the education of all persons with disabilities. Narrative knowledge is a legitimate form of knowing (Bruner, 1996). I therefore begin this thesis with an account of my background and life experience to give an insight into why I decided to conduct this study.

I was born in October 1949, in Luangeni village, Chief Mpezeni, some 14 miles east from Chipata (then Fort Jameson) in the Eastern Province of Zambia. I am the first child and son in the family of two. My sister Florence was born three years after me.

Until the age of 7 years I spent most of my time looking after my uncle's cattle. I had received no formal education. However, in 1957 at the age of 8 I decided to go to school. On my own initiative without my parents' knowledge, I was enrolled at a school which was 10 kilometres from my village. Self-engineered admission was unusual. My parents probably did not want to enrol me at school owing to the fact that some parents were taken to court and fined £10.00 by the colonial government if their children were enrolled at school and then became truants and they may have been worried that this would happen to them if I started to truant. Those who failed to pay the fine ended up in prison. At a later stage I did receive the permission of my family.

Four years later I completed my Grade Four (re-named Standard Two by then), but I could not proceed with schooling because my parents divorced and seemed not to be bothered preparing me for adult life. The reason could be that they did not understand the importance of education as key in the development of the family and the nation as a whole. It may also be that they might have

been so frustrated by the divorce that they directed all their thoughts towards it. Snowdon (1997) and Hillman & Weintraub, (1998) who studied divorce and its effects on children points out that those children undeniably need a family structure to develop into mature and productive adults. Miller (1998) informs us that when parents divorce the majority forget the obligation of preparing children for adult life which is an import function of parenting. Whatever the reason, my parents' attitudes were negative to my development and right to education. This may have stemmed from the fact that my father never went far in education himself. He achieved a Standard 2 qualification only. My mother never set a foot in an educational institution to learn. Ntata (1999) states that the general standard of education of the family is a major influence over the child's education. Also my parents' negativity could be attributed to the fact that formal education at the time was understood to be a White Man's activity. My father's education was limited perhaps because his parents did not want him to go further in education for the reason given above or they had no resources to support his education. In the case of my mother, it may be that she had no opportunity to be educated because women in those days were seen as people who could only work in the kitchen. It could also be because her father died before she attained school-going age and that there was nobody to support her education later in life. In addition, African tradition does not allow children to come to the forefront. They are told not to speak without adult permission. If they do they will be said to have no discipline because they speak their minds. At that time, if the child spoke out it was taken as a bad effect of schooling. This belief is still

lingering among many of the Zambian population even today.

After 4 years of schooling, I lacked the resources to meet school requirements, including uniform. Uniform was very important and I could not attend school without it. The decision about wearing uniform was made by the British, our colonial masters then, although this has continued. Because I could not afford school requirements, at the age of 11 years I went back to the village to lead the life of a herdsman, herding my uncle's cattle. This involved taking the animals out into the bush to eat and bringing them back into the kraal at sunset. This activity was everyday, seven days a week, and became my permanent chore.

On 24<sup>th</sup> October 1964, Zambia got its political independence. Slightly after this my father, who was by then on the Copperbelt working as a shopkeeper, wanted me to join him. I subsequently heard his sister and cousin were always telling him that it was wrong for him to forget children after divorce as they are the support of old age. He sent transport money through the parish priest Fr. Asberito Sibweta for me to join him on the Copperbelt.

After Zambia got its political independence the government plan was to expand old schools and construct new ones too. Also in each district a secondary school was established with an aim to implement the concept of universal education which was declared immediately after independence. A week after my arrival in Ndola, I was enrolled in one of the newly constructed schools called Lyuni Local Authority School (LEA) to repeat Grade 4 at the age of 15 years. I felt quite happy and my face was full of joy to be enrolled in an urban school as

previously I had been learning in a village school. With my village school knowledge I was doing much better than most of the children in the class. The following year I was transferred to Chilengwa Primary school because Lyuni School had no facilities for grades 5 to 7 education. When I moved to Chilengwa School, father categorically refused to meet school demands in terms of uniform and sports fund. The sports fund was K1.00 (£1.00) at the time, paid to the school authority once at the beginning of each academic year. This money was meant to feed children each time they went out for sports or hire transport if they went to a distant place for sports where transport was needed. No other expenses were involved. However, this was a challenge to me. Life was hard to bear in that I had to combine work and school in order to survive. I had to seek for a part-time job in Mahtani's Departmental Store to enable me to buy uniform and other school requisites. The work involved packing and labeling prices on the items, cleaning, and carrying groceries for customers to their vehicles. From 0645 hours to 1300 hours, which is normal hours for class work I was attending school and 1400 hours to 1900 hours at the shop. On Saturdays and Sundays it was full-time from 0730 hours to 1900 hours at work and I had no time for resting. I was paid only K10.00 (£10.00) half day work per month or K20.00 (£20.00) full-time per month. The school policy was that no child should go to school without uniform and the part-time job kept me in the school because I was able to buy school materials. Lack of uniform and non payment of sports fund meant no school for children from poor families.

In 1967, I qualified to go for Grade 8 at Chasa Secondary School under Catholic priests. The examination involved all subjects: English, Mathematics, Science, History,

Geography, Special Paper 1 and 2 and Bemba, a native language taught on the Copperbelt of Zambia. The Special Paper is an IQ test meant to test the natural ability of someone to see how well s/he would cope with future scholastic activities. The aim of Chasa School was that any child selected was ear-marked for either priesthood or brotherhood at the end of his secondary school education. In January, 1968 I reported to the school. After viewing my documents I was told that 18 years was too old for someone to be in Grade 8. I was told to go back home and find something else to occupy myself in life. The normal age for Grade 8 was 15 years which has been maintained even today. I was not satisfied with the school administration's explanation so I travelled to the regional headquarters in Chipata to seek further clarification on the matter. I did not understand why, if I was too old for Grade 8, they selected me after seeing my age on the application form. My journey to the regional offices was fruitless, in that the regional administrators said the head-teacher's decision was final and that they could do nothing about it. I was depressed because I expected kind and sympathetic words from them but what I got was completely negative. I had no alternative but to go back to Chasa Secondary School, get my luggage and travel back to Ndola on the Copperbelt. I knew I was doomed because the schooling that I loved so much was no more. It was very difficult to absorb this bad news. It even affected my stay with my father and step mother because I was called all sorts of names by them. Sometimes I was chased from home and I spent some nights under the bridge because I failed to or delayed, watering the garden. At times I was not given food for the same reason. Some trauma specialists believe that all

these unhealthy messages become part of the child's view of life (Miller, 1998).

In early February, 1968, when I had come to terms with the situation, I went to see my part-time employer and negotiated for full-time employment. This was not difficult, and the same morning I started working. I was told that I would be working from 0730 hours to 1900 hours, packing and labeling prices on commodities, cleaning and carrying groceries to customers' vehicles, with 30 minutes lunch each day for 6 days a week. Sunday was my day off.

I was not satisfied with the job I did at the shop. The thirst for education was very strong in me. I wanted to go back to school to get further education I did not accept that I should be excluded from it. What drove me to go back to school is that education is powerful and once educated one may be able to contribute to the family and the national development meaningfully. I think many others would have accepted that they were blocked but I still had hope of getting the much-needed education. Since I had no chance to go for full-time schooling I organized books and started reading for Junior Secondary Examinations (Form II). These were external examinations which I read on my own. I simply entered for examinations with the Ministry of Education as a certifying body. Where I could not understand I used to ask friends who were in full-time education, and those whom I knew who studied above my qualification. I read for two solid years and in December 1969 I entered for examinations which I took in November the same year. It was a wonderful experience. I gained a certificate with 5 passes, and subjects included were English, Mathematics,

History, Health Science and a Nyanja native language. English and Mathematics were compulsory.

A painful experience occurred on 29<sup>th</sup> September, 1969 when my father collapsed in an office where he was working and died. It was my first experience of death in my immediate family. Life became even harder for me. I was fatherless with no proper job and no accommodation of my own. I went to live with a friend who was in a similar situation to me and had put up a small cabin outside his uncle's house. I also had thoughts about my mother at this time, although she was told by someone in my village that I was dead. She had conducted all rituals regarding funerals. I was 20 years old, but in African custom a child is never old, because we keep referring certain problems back to our parents. Although she had refused to meet my school requirements, there was still that attachment between us.

By the time I completed my Form II education I had moved from Mahtani's Departmental Store. I was working for the Managing Director of Boarder Motors called Pierre Attala as a house servant. Both Pierre and his wife Jenny were good and sympathetic to me. They gave me what I could describe as reasonable wages for my upkeep, according to Zambian standard then. Apart from the K40.00 (£40.00) salary paid to me per month, they also bought things like clothes and food for me. Food was bought every Friday for the whole week. Life started becoming a bit better for me with this family around. After Form 11 I applied for my teacher training course and Mr. Pierre Attala was one of my referees.

My interest in working with people with disabilities stems from Mrs. Gupta, my lecturer in Child Psychology at Mufulira Teacher Training College, where I initially trained as a teacher. Once a month in term time we used

to travel to Kansenshi Primary School in Ndola where there was a unit for children with Learning Difficulties. The unit was attached to mainstream school in the same locality and the assumption was that children with disability and those without would interact at break time or during sports and other activities (Dean, 1991). This was not the case because children with disabilities grouped themselves in their class and never went far to play. At this school we observed how teachers taught and how children with learning disabilities learnt. I remembered having such a child in my home village. The village community neglected the girl and called her a fool. At Kansenshi School it was a fascinating experience to see children like her learning. I had seen no reason for educating such children in terms of their benefits and the nation at large until I became involved in special needs education. This was a critical movement for me especially because the Zambian culture in which I was born from seems to be negative towards people with disabilities. Since then my stance has been to be a voice for the voiceless in order to develop their potential by empowering them with education that will enable them to contribute to the family and national development.

I completed my two year course at Mufulira Teachers College on 12th December 1972 and was posted to a primary school in the rural district of Mumbwa, which was opening two grade seven classes for the first time. This was another traumatic experience for me because I did not expect to be posted to a very remote area after enjoying urban life for 8 years. Life was difficult here. One problem I encountered was drawing water from the well about a quarter of a mile from the teachers' houses. At times the well became dry during the period between July to November. When it was the rainy season the place



became flooded with water, muddy and some areas were impassable. The Sala tribe too was hostile towards government officers from other parts of Zambia who went to work in their area. They called us 'Baswamashi' meaning 'foreigners'. Although my early life was in a village, I hated the place and immediately requested a transfer to an urban area where life was more comfortable. One reason that I wrote in my application letter for a transfer was that I wanted to be in an urban area where evening classes ran for General Certificate Education Ordinary Level (G.C.E. 'O' level). I was at Shibuyunji Primary School for two years and had started reading for G.C.E. 'O' Level with the Rapids Results College in London by correspondence. My transfer took six months to be approved by the regional office but finally, on 6<sup>th</sup> December 1974, I was transferred to Broadway School in Kabwe Urban district.

After serving for 8 years in mainstream teaching I applied to Lusaka College for the Teachers of the Handicapped (LUCOTEHA), now the Zambia Institute of Special Education (ZAMISE). I was offered a place to train as a teacher for children with learning difficulties. However, I decided not to go because one head-teacher in my neighbourhood discouraged me from taking up the course. He described children with disabilities with a lot of names as fools, idiots, imbeciles, helpless, useless and people who cannot think on their own. If I went and trained to teach such children I would one day become mad myself he told me. After a year also the same person told me a different story. He said I would have completed my course if I had gone. I realized he did not have the qualification to go for this course himself and so had discouraged me. I ignored him and what I did was to reapply to the same

college and I was accepted for the second time. I made sure I went to do the course. In May 1984 I left for Lusaka College for the Teachers of the Handicapped. My course at LUCOTEHA involved a number of components, tailored to meet the diverse needs of children with disabilities, especially those with learning difficulties. I found the course both in theory and practice fascinating and enlightening. Theory was done in the classroom and reading of books on the subject although most of the literature was from industrialized countries. Later the theory was put into practice in the few institutions for children with disabilities around the country. Some of these schools were established by missionaries and some were constructed by the Zambian government after taking over both administrative and professional roles of running special education. We also learnt how to be creative and improvise the ability to modify plans and activities in the classroom situation and how to involve parents and community in the education of their children. Such an orientation is still in line with the current teacher education world (Sovolainen, 1997).

On completion of the course, I went back to my school in Kabwe with an aim to open a unit for children with disabilities. Although I managed to establish one with 8 children on roll, it was not easy at all. Upon hearing that I was going to open a unit at the school, the head-teacher was not happy with me and did not like the idea. He continued to describe children with learning difficulties in the same way as the head teacher I have already mentioned. He said they were 'fools, idiots' imbeciles' and people who did not have the capacity to think. But through long dialogue and negotiation I was allowed to establish the unit. I was also involved in the

delivery of seminars, workshops and meetings to sensitise teachers, parents and the community at large on children with disabilities that they too have the same rights as anyone else who calls him/herself 'normal'. In my sessions I told them that these children were human beings like anybody else. I also told them that education was a right of every citizen. If they continued saying no to these children's education, then they were denying them their basic right to education.

The headteacher allowed me to open a unit only on the understanding that if these children brought problems into the school then I would be held responsible. He allocated me a class in the afternoon at 1400 hours when the other children and staff had gone home, so as to avoid problems that might have occurred with my children. I gathered more strength and continued to negotiate with him until one day he gave me one small office to use as a class. The office had no glass panes in the windows and so I decided to put metal sheets in the windows to keep the cold out. Then I approached a parental pressure group called the Zambia Association for Children and Adults with Learning Difficulties (ZACALD), to empower me with financial resources to renovate the classroom. The pressure group responded positively and provided adequate funds for the rehabilitation of the room.

Although most of the teachers in the school did not understand me, a few also thought I was making worthwhile contributions for the development of a child and the school. Some could even come and tell me that the point I raised in a meeting was good despite the head-teacher's failure to acknowledge it. Despite the administration and some teachers were negative about my contribution, I went on educating them about children with disabilities being

the same as anybody else and enjoying the same rights as any human being. I told them about the causes of disabilities which I said were many. The children in the unit did not ask to be what they are but nature is cruel. This same condition can occur in every home and at any time. I offered this education to teachers at school level.

As earlier indicated I was also involved in delivery of workshops, seminars in large forums at district level. The district had about 40 schools. For the purpose of training the teachers we grouped the schools into zones. Each zone had 5 schools in close proximity to each other. Each time there was a seminar each school was asked to send about four teachers, making a total of 20 teachers. We also had to hold seminars for head-teachers. The programme was completed in two terms. Although it is never easy to assess the achievement of the programme, the evaluation did indicate that it was effective. Many teachers applied to go for the course at LUCOTEHA to train in one of the four recognized disabilities in Zambia. These are physical, learning difficulties, visual and hearing impairments. Also teachers teaching children with disabilities seemed fairly accepted by some teachers and members of the community. In fact we used some parents with children with disabilities to tell others how their children achieved some skills which they did not have before coming to school.

### *Personal experience of reactions to disability in Zambia*

In Zambia and other parts of the developing countries, as I discuss in chapter 3, people with severe disabilities were referred to as 'fools, idiots, and imbeciles' and 'God's children' (Simwaka, 1985; Kalabula, 1992). These descriptions are still common today among the population

(Tembo, 1992). The following vignette, from my own experience, offers an illustration of how children with disabilities face problems in the process of acquiring education.

Mabvuto was seven years old. Since birth the digits of his hands had been webbed. His disability also resulted in looking different from other children. He was perfectly normal intellectually. He was simply physically different.

When he was seven years old his parents made an effort to get him into school. The head-teacher refused, saying quite simply that his presence would disturb the other children. The child needed a special school. Derman-Sparks (1993) states that discrimination by teachers against children with disabilities in schools has become a concern for many years. Three years later his mother tried again at another school which Mabvuto's brothers and sisters attended. This time the head-teacher stated that Mabvuto would not be able to cope because he was different from other children. Also the school was overcrowded. Cook et al (2000) stresses that it is not easy for society to accept children with disabilities due to culture. Mabvuto's mother was frustrated and decided to keep him at home. Scruggs & Mastropieri (1996) contend that for disabled children to have their right to education is an uphill battle which needs patience and dialogue. Through patience and education people will be able to understand that the disabled are also entitled to education.

When I completed my course at the Zambia Institute of Special education (ZAMISE) in 1985, I was approached by the parents of Mabvuto. They explained how they tried to take Mabvuto to school and how the head-teacher responded

to it. I decided to make representation on behalf of the family for Mabvuto to be admitted to school. There were refusals from six schools until finally Mabvuto was accepted at one school. Mabvuto started school for the first time at the age of eleven and was placed amongst eight year old children. Mabvuto made friends in the school. He was also well known and accepted in the community where he lived. Now the entire family was happy and proud of Mabvuto. Mabvuto's case illustrates some of the difficulties and frustrations that parents and family members encounter in having their children with disabilities accepted into the general education classrooms in Zambia.

### *Lessons learned from past experiences*

My ambition as a teacher and lecturer for over two decades has been to see the inclusion of all pupils with disabilities and other vulnerable groups in general education classrooms and the community, and promote a degree of awareness and understanding in Zambian people that we are all different and should value each other. I cherish seeing joy in the eyes of disabled people especially when they are treated equally by their peers and contribute to the national development in their own way.

I was the victim of educational exclusion from an early age when my parents threw away the responsibility of raising their own offspring. If I as an ordinary person encountered such problems in my effort to acquire education, what more with a person with disabilities whom society deems as different? Is it going to accept him/her easily with the culture and beliefs that are prevailing?

There are many more stories similar to that of Mabvuto outlined above, stories that portray the attitudes of Zambian society towards the education of children with disabilities. These negative paradigms seem to engulf almost the whole of Zambian society. There are sad stories of discrimination which have been in existence since time immemorial. These negative attitudes seem to haunt most of the population of Zambia. These stories provide powerful confirmation of the culture, beliefs and discrimination that confront those with disabilities and their families in Zambia.

Traditional Zambian culture has not shifted much from earlier thinking. In my experience the majority of the Zambian population still view disabled groups as second class citizens who cannot contribute to national development, and as such should not have access to education although they have legal rights to it. For example in the vignette when Mabvuto's mother was looking for a place for her child to start school, the head-teachers did not want to enrol Mabvuto at those schools because he was disabled. These same names repeated themselves when I was first offered a place at the LUCOTEHA, as I have described above. The head-teacher in my neighbourhood described the course I was about to take as useless, non profitable, for hopeless people, sick, mad and fools. He alleged that if I trained in this course I would one day become mad myself. He justified his claim by saying that there was a doctor who was treating leprosy at Liteta. After working with people with leprosy he also started losing his fingers too. This meant that the condition of learning difficulties was a contagious disease as a disability. At the end of it all I declined to go on the course.

The second time when I reapplied, similar remarks about the course and children with learning difficulties were also evident when processing my study leave. The District Education Officer and the Senior Inspector of Schools at the Provincial Education Officer's office uttered similar discriminatory remarks to describe children with disabilities. But I did not look behind until I went to LUCOTEHA.

After completion of my study whenever I wanted to contribute to any discussion for the benefit of children and development of the school, I was labeled as a mad person because I was teaching children with Learning difficulties whom they described fools. I almost lived a solitary life at my work place as a result of teaching such children. But what I did was to interact with them very freely because I knew that proximity brings a different awareness of humanity.

## **Conclusion**

This chapter has discussed my personal account in relation to educational exclusion. From personal experience I concluded that:

- All Zambian children were ours and had a right to education
- They were part of society
- There is no difference between them and us
- We could not discard these children because of their disabilities
- Their problem was society's problem
- We must give assistance by teaching life long skills to reduce their dependence and to build their self-esteem.



The story of my personal experience brings with it some evidence of teacher attitudes towards the education of children with disabilities in Zambia. It is also my experience that proximity brings with it a greater understanding and acceptance of pupils with disabilities. It is my experience that teachers' attitudes towards the children in their school is a crucial factor in determining how far those children will be included. It is for this reason that I have decided to focus on teachers' attitudes towards inclusion in Zambia in schools with a history of attempting to include disabled pupils.

My story highlights the progress I made and the challenges faced in the process of growing up. Parents are key in the development of a child. The role of parents is projected as important in preparing the child for adult life. The chapter has focused on the issue of discrimination. I have observed that children with disabilities are often discriminated against. The issue of disability and discrimination is a concern amongst educationists' worldwide. In Zambia, policy documents reflect the inclusion of children with disabilities into general education classrooms but acceptance which is an aspect of inclusion has not yet been achieved. If discrimination is to be reduced or eliminated world-wide all those involved must view it as something to be fought for instead of assuming that it will be a reality without hard work. All need not only to take seriously the rights discourse, but also to find ways and means to see that every child has access to education which is a basic right.

## **Chapter 2    Literature review: 'inclusive' education and teacher attitudes**

### **Introduction**

This chapter is divided into two sections. Section one discusses the development of inclusive education, and includes a focus on international policy documents which reflect global thinking and development in terms of educational provision for all children, including those with disabilities in general education classrooms. From this literature a number of themes pertinent to inclusive issues are identified and discussed. Section two reviews literature on teacher attitudes and discusses how they are related to 'inclusion'. Zambian literature that focuses on existing practice is examined in Chapter 3.

The first part of this chapter reviews inclusion literature that has influenced inclusive education globally. The section is divided into themed components with a summary at the end of the section:

- The birth of inclusive education

- What is inclusion?

- Aims of inclusive education

- Change in service delivery

- Benefits to the child

- The process of inclusion

- Why inclusion?

- Changing discourse

- Summary: global responses to inclusion

Section two considers research related to the issue of teachers' attitudes and comprises:

What are attitudes

Significance of teachers' attitudes

Fears and Concerns

Optimism and confidence

Summary: teachers' attitudes to inclusion

## **Section one: inclusion**

### *The birth of inclusive education*

Globally, in recent years, the concept of inclusive education has received a great deal of support, although in some situations professionals are not clear as to what type of inclusion model to follow (Mittler, 2000). It is important that the history of the shift towards inclusive education internationally is discussed. An understanding of the history enables understanding of attitudes towards education for pupils with disabilities and makes the present situation meaningful and the future intelligible.

Dyson & Forlin (1999) argue that all societies have historically developed attitudes and responses to learners with disabilities. For example, in developed countries such as the UK, U.S.A and Scandinavia, the process of industrialisation was accompanied by the rise of mass education systems, frequently having their origins in local charitable initiatives, but rapidly being taken over and rationalised by the state. Villa et al (1992) agree that these systems had to confront the issue of what sort of education to provide for learners with disabilities. The same sort of local and charitable initiatives that had promoted general education had been responsible for the establishment of a strictly limited range of special education. Over time these local initiatives were gradually taken over by the state and

developed into a more comprehensive system, in much the same way as had happened for general education. By the middle of the twentieth century, most industrialised countries had a separate special education system that provided for many if not all learners with disabilities.

Although the inclusive education movement is now an international phenomenon it has its origins in the relatively rich developed countries that had already constructed both extensive and sophisticated general and special education systems. In the 1960s, for example, a number of Scandinavian countries shifted the emphasis of their educational provision for learners with disabilities from separate special schooling to what became known as integration, which means the placement of such learners in general education schools (Meijer et al, 1994). They were followed in the 1970s by countries such as the USA and the United Kingdom (Lipsky & Gartner, 1997; Clark et al, 1997), by Italy (Abbring & Meijer, 1994) and Spain (Meijer, 1998).

Two significant developments have been apparent internationally in the education of learners with disabilities. First came the integration movement and later the transformation of this into the inclusive movement which marks a further shift of emphasis in an attempt to overcome some of the perceived limitations of integration. Inclusion is taken to indicate a more thoroughgoing commitment to create general schools, which are inherently capable of educating all learners (Sebba & Ainscow, 1999; Vlachou, 1997). This in turn may entail some radical restructuring of schools as organisations, re-evaluation of the nature of the curriculum, and changes in pedagogical practice (Villa et al, 1992). The second development is that the inclusive education

movement has become internationalised. It is not simply that a wide range of developed countries have begun to adopt the rhetoric of inclusion, but that the creation of inclusive schools has come to seem a promising way forward for countries which have developed less than comprehensive special education systems (e.g. Lynch, 1994; Chen, 1996; Artiles & Larsen, 1998; Kisanji, 1998). To a certain extent it is legitimate to see the emergence of inclusive education in all countries as part of the same global agenda in the social context (Pijl et al, 1997).

This change in the education of people with disabilities was part of a wider movement in which impairment began to be viewed no longer as a handicap which required people to be segregated from the mainstream society. The proclamation of the normalisation principle (Wolfensberger, 1972) in the Scandinavian countries seem to have transformed societies' view of people with disabilities from a focus on abnormality to one of a human rights perspective. Normalisation has been described as the physical and social integration of developmentally disabled individuals into the mainstream of community (Thurman & Fiorelli, 1979). The human rights discourse, which resulted from the normalisation principle, has led to the establishment of laws that ensure people's fundamental rights. International declarations, which have focused on human rights, have formed the basis for the establishment of charters and covenants. While the rights proclaimed in these charters and covenants have been incorporated into the education Acts of many countries, there is still considerable disparity between the interpretation of such rights.

The rights of a child to education originated in a number of international declarations and recommendations, although it was not until the normalisation movement that such rights began to be enacted for all learners, including those with disabilities. The first two international declarations that included a mention of the right of a child to education were the Charter of the United Nations (1945) and the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948). Learners' rights to education were enhanced further in the United Nations Declaration of the Rights of the Child (1959), where the initial responsibility for the education and guidance of the child given in the first instance, were put on the parents. In Principle 7 of this declaration the right to education provides reference to the need for both 'equal' and 'full' opportunity for a child's moral and social development. The International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (UN, 1966), provided further indications of how this right might be realised. This covenant placed greater emphasis on education as a social right (Article 13(2)(e)). It set out guidelines for the development of a system of schools at all levels and the continual improvement of the material conditions of teaching staff. Equality of education, although not referred to in Article 13, was included in the international Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (UN, 1966). This included a generality clause recognising that 'all persons are equal before the law and are entitled within any discrimination to the equal protection of the law' (Article 26). Although the rights of learners to education were established by international legal systems, it was the interpretation of the meaning of 'equality' by the international community that was

crucial to the implementation of the rights of all learners to access similar educational opportunities.

The most positive result of the United Nations covenants and charters on the protection of human rights (including the right to education) lies in their influence on the law and practice in the international community (Baehr & Gordenker, 1992). They have provided the stimulus for individual countries and states to develop their own code of ethics and legislation. Learners are now considered to have the right to education on the basis of equal opportunity and to the development of their fullest potential. In many instances this has been interpreted to mean the inclusion of all pupils, regardless of disability, in general education classrooms. The UN has promoted greater commitment to the inclusion of learners with disabilities in general education classes by advocating the principle of equity in educational opportunities throughout the whole school system, and UNESCO has developed a teacher resource package to support this.

The child's right to education, therefore, relies currently on the need to provide equal educational opportunities for all learners including those with disabilities, so that they may achieve to their full potential. From the perspective of distributive justice, obligations towards all learners are equally important. As Buchnon & Brock (1990 p. 191) state:

A sound ethical framework forming decision-making for incompetent individuals must reflect the fact that others have rights and interests as well and that resources... are scarce.

The revised Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) stipulated the rights of all children. Notable among

these are: the right not to be discriminated against (Art. 2); the right to live within his/her family and the right of disabled children to have special care (Art. 9) and the right to education and training to help him/her achieve the greatest degree of self-reliance and social integration possible (Art. 23). In addition, the Convention states that education shall aim at developing the child's personality, talents and mental and physical abilities to the fullest extent. This means that education shall prepare the child for an active adult life in a free society and foster respect for the child's parents, for his/her cultural identity, language and values and for the cultural background and values of others (Art. 29;30).

Basic ideas of inclusion are also reflected in the Jomtien Declaration's basic principles for promoting 'Education for All' where the following are outlined: the right of a child to a full cycle of primary education; commitment to a child-centred pedagogy where individual differences are accepted as a challenge and not as a problem; improvement of the quality of primary education as well as teacher education; recognition of the wide diversity of needs and patterns of development among primary school children's individual needs and commitment to an integrated, inter-sectarian and holistic approach (Jomtien World Declaration on Education for All 1990 and Framework for Action to Meet Basic Learning Needs, 1994). Although the idea of inclusion seems to receive world support, one cannot conclude that it is universally applied.

In 1994, one of the significant international events in the field of special education occurred to build on the Jomtien Declaration and Standard Rules principles and to



map out practical requirements that have to be satisfied to make inclusive education a reality. This was the purpose of the Salamanca World Conference on Special Needs Education: Access and Quality, organised by the government of Spain in co-operation with UNESCO. The goal was the inclusion of the entire world's children in schools and the reform of the school systems to make this possible (Kajubi, 1999). Specifically, the Salamanca Framework for Action stated, among other things, that schools should accommodate all children regardless of their physical, intellectual, social, emotional, linguistic or other conditions. This should include disabled and gifted children, street children and working children, children from remote or nomadic populations, children from linguistic, ethnic or cultural minorities and children from other disadvantaged or marginalised areas or groups. In the context of this framework, the term 'special educational needs' refers to all those children and youths whose needs arise from disabilities or learning difficulties (Salamanca Framework for Action, Art. 3).

All the above developments, coupled with initiatives from the countries themselves as well as from various multilateral and bilateral organisations and non-governmental organisations (NGOs), have culminated in the growing recognition that all children have the right to a common education in their locality or community regardless of their background, attainment or disability. However, while there is much consensus on inclusive education being the most desirable, how to achieve full inclusion remains a challenge. This occurs because of differences in how inclusion has been perceived and operationalised.

## *What is inclusion?*

The definition of inclusion is clearly broader than just disability. UNESCO (1999) defines 'inclusive education' as a process of addressing learners' needs within the mainstream school, using the available resources to create opportunities to learn in preparing pupils for adult life. The emphasis is on reviewing schools and systems and changing them rather than trying to change pupils (p. 20). If society prepares all pupils including those with disabilities for adult life, then it is essential that all pupils be educated in the general education classroom. The Salamanca Framework acknowledges the differences in learning needs and speeds which are evident in all classrooms all over the world. This is particularly relevant to children with learning difficulties who may need to learn at a slower pace.

Special needs education ... assumes that human differences are normal and that learning must accordingly be adapted to the needs of the child rather than the child fitted to pre-ordained assumptions regarding the pace and nature of the learning process (p.60).

This passage highlights an important difference between integration and inclusion. The terms are often used interchangeably, as if they mean the same thing.

Inclusive schooling implies that all children, no matter how severe their disability or how intense their needs, can be accommodated in the regular class in their neighbourhood school - the school they would attend if they did not have a disability (Stainback and Stainback, 1989). Inclusive schooling is not synonymous with integration or mainstreaming (Ainscow, 1991, Mittler, 1995), nor is it concerned only with education for pupils

with disabilities. The philosophy underlying inclusive education is that, schools have a responsibility to meet the needs of all children, and teachers should be able to differentiate and adapt curriculum and instructional strategies to suit the differing needs and abilities of each child in the classroom. Inclusive education seeks to restructure schools in order to respond to the learning needs of all children (Anscow, 1995 p.1). Also referred to as a 'whole school approach', inclusive schooling requires the utilisation of full school resources to provide an appropriate education for each pupil.

### *Aims of inclusive education*

One of the aims of inclusive schooling is to eliminate altogether any compartmentalisation of service, including special education and special educators as a system of provision (Giangreco et al, 1993). This is not to suggest that the expert skills and knowledge of special teachers no longer have a role to play in education.

Implementation of inclusive schooling requires the redeployment of special education staff and resources to mainstream schools where they would have an advisory role across the whole curriculum (Yatvin, 1995). Resources and services used by pupils with disabilities would be relocated into the regular classroom to provide support to all pupils in need.

Another aim of the inclusive schools movement is to enhance the social skills and community participation of people with severe disability, and in so doing to change the attitudes of both teachers and students towards disability (Stainback and Stainback, 1984). Inclusive schooling brings together several fundamental aspects of education. Firstly, it is rights-focused (Ainscow, 1991). Inclusive schooling can be considered the ultimate

educational outcome of the principle of normalisation. It begins with the premise that every child has the right to participate in the mainstream of society and enjoy the same privileges, benefits and opportunities as his or her peers (Lazarus et al, 1999). Participation in mainstream schools is recognition of the fact that pupils with disabilities have more in common with their peers than they have differences. Enrolment of a pupil with a disability in an age-appropriate regular class in the school, which the pupil would attend if he or she did not have a disability, is a logical outcome of normalisation. It represents an extension to education of other generic services and entitlements in the community.

Also inclusive education, it is claimed, involves all members of the community in the nurturing and education of our children to become good citizens and leaders of tomorrow (Stubbs, 1997). In short all members of the community are stakeholders and participate in the direction of the school. Therefore, if inclusion succeeds in displacing segregated education, it will have done so because society considers that it is right to do so (Thomas, 1997).

Further, inclusive schooling is said to recognise the needs of all children to gain feelings of self-worth and self-respect through their own efforts and achievements, no matter how small those achievements might seem (Galis, 1994). Children should not be set up to fail by being required to follow a set programme that is not related to their individual needs and capabilities. Schools should not aim to teach a set of predetermined curriculum objectives, but to ensure that individual pupils develop to their fullest potential. In such a climate diversity is valued, the goal is interdependence, rather than

independence, with support networks for pupils with disabilities being fostered among staff and pupils in their natural setting - the regular classroom (Stainback and Stainback, 1990).

This concept of inclusive schooling thus requires a break away from traditional concepts of teaching and learning to embrace programmes that enable children with differing needs and abilities to work together (Stainback and Stainback, 1989; Ainscow, 1991; Jonas et al, 1995; Norwich, 1996; Quah and Jones, 1997). Lipsky and Gartner (1989;1997) provide two important requirements in this perspective: first, the acceptance by the class teachers of responsibility for a diverse range of pupils and, second, a classroom perspective that sees this diversity, including the presence of pupils with disabilities, as providing positive opportunities for learning through the development of new organisational and instructional approaches.

### *Change in service delivery*

The movement toward the inclusion of disabled pupils into general education classrooms in the West has indeed resulted in a different service delivery model (Dyson, 1994). Previously, the delivery of services to pupils with disabilities took place either in separate classrooms or resource rooms for all or part of the day. This is commonly known as withdrawal (Stainback and Stainback, 1984; Ainscow, 1991). The current emphasis is shifting to providing as much service delivery as possible within the child's regular classroom. The pupil remains in the classroom and the support is given either directly to the pupil or the teacher in the classroom (Palmer et al, 1998). Proponents of inclusion, such as Ainscow, (1991) and Yatvin (1995), have argued that

withdrawal delivery systems, such as the ones used in special education, are not effective in remediating or rehabilitating even mild types of disabilities. Further, they contend that teachers in regular classes provide effective instruction that is appropriate for all children and can accommodate individual differences, including pupils with disabilities (Lilly, 1988). Ainscow (1991) and Yatvin (1995) identified three factors that led to the philosophy of inclusion:

- All children learn best in regular classrooms when there are flexible organisational and instructional patterns in place and human and material supports for those with special needs;
- A child's belief that he or she is entitled to a place in a community of peers is a pre-condition for learning; and
- Withdrawal programmes that impose the extra burdens of academic discontinuity, poor quality instruction, social anxiety, and low status on special needs children deprive them of the opportunity for the education they are entitled to, and thus violate their civil rights (Mortimer, 1995; Ainscow, 1999; Florian, 1998; Wilson, 2000).

Inclusive education is argued to result in a closely co-ordinated and collaborative relationship between the regular classroom teacher and the special education personnel providing support. The resulting relationship is commonly conceptualised within the context of a consultant model (Ainscow, 1990; 1991; Jordan et al, 1994). In the USA it has become known as the Regular Education Initiative (REITS) (Will, 1986). Teachers' attitudes and beliefs toward this type of service delivery model have been mixed. Many researchers and

proponents of school reform are in agreement that there has been enough attention paid to this issue (Coates, 1989; Idol et al, 1995; Jelas, 2000). As with attitudes toward mainstreaming, it may be ultimately the front-line personnel - the regular classroom teachers who determine the success of the consultation-based service delivery model, as with almost any educational innovation (Ainscow, 1991; Whittaker, 1994; Wilson, 2000). Ainscow (1991) encourages teachers to adopt a reflective attitude towards their own practice. This supports the idea that the teachers should be trained in methodology that cuts across the diversity of abilities.

### *Benefits to the pupil*

Inclusionists describe many possible benefits of inclusive classrooms for pupils with disabilities. Self-esteem and feelings of self-worth are believed to increase because pupils with disabilities are less likely to be identified as 'slow' learners by their peers or feel stigmatised (Wiener and Manuel, 1997). By remaining in the general education classroom, pupils with disabilities have more time to make and keep friendships with their non-disabled peers, and enjoy increased instructional time, as they are not travelling from the general education classroom to the resource room. Wiener and Harris (1997) claim that pupils do not miss out key content areas previously covered during their absence, and the assistance provided by the special education teacher in the inclusive classroom is more directly related to the general education curriculum.

Many teachers see the benefits of inclusion. 'Inclusion is good for kids,' (Friend & Cook, 1993: 54) wrote one teacher in the newsletter *Instructor*. 'It helps pupils really understand diversity. And pupils learn to help

each other. It teaches pupils that they can learn from each other; that the teacher is not the only source in the classroom.' Another teacher wrote, 'Student with disabilities benefit from being with peers. Some pupils learn much more than they would if they received the same instruction in a special education classroom. And they learn how to get along with their classmates who are not disabled' (p. 54). Another teacher wrote, 'non-disabled pupils become more aware of the needs of people with disabilities and mature in the areas of social/emotional development, flexibility and empathy' (p. 55). Another teacher wrote, teachers become more reflective, flexible, and empathetic and feel an increased level of confidence in their teaching ability. The teachers' experiences impacted not only how they teach the pupils with disabilities, but also how they approached teaching of all pupils in the class' (p. 55). Another teacher wrote that inclusion 'brings the staff together.... We support each other more than we ever did before' (p. 54). Teacher positive attitudes may come from experience with pupils with disabilities in a classroom situation.

The results of a study done by Janney et al (1995: 431) indicated that all interviewees but one felt the inclusion effort in their schools were successful. In one school a special education teacher in this study stated that inclusion is 'really beneficial and it's not as you might first anticipate it to be'. This teacher saw the benefits of inclusion in both the pupils with and those without disabilities. Another teacher stated, 'It's made a good atmosphere for our whole school. Our children are so much more aware of others, and I think it's made them less self-centred. And it's made us teachers more aware, too' (p. 431).



## *The process of inclusion*

Inclusive education is frequently presented in the literature as a process which includes a change of attitude of all key players involved in the implementation. Changing people's attitudes is not easy. Attitudes are part of a culture. Some cultures are resistant to change. Changing culture may mean an alteration in living styles of people. Legislation is often a first step towards this.

In many countries the move towards inclusion has been supported by legislation. In the UK, for example, in 1978, the issue of integration was raised by the publication of findings of the Committee of Inquiry into the Education of Handicapped Children and Young People (Warnock Report, 1978). The 1981 Education Act, though not fully implementing the recommendations of the 1978 Warnock Report, eliminated the categorisation of children by disability. Chapter 60, para. 1.1 of the 1981 Education Act states the following: For the purpose of the Act, a child has 'Special Educational Needs' (SEN) if s/he has a learning difficulty which calls for special education provision to be made for her/him, that is, s/he has significantly greater problems in learning, or a disability which renders her/him unable to benefit from the normal facilities generally available within the Local Educational Authority (LEA).

In the U.S.A, the issue of where pupils with disabilities should be educated has been inextricably intertwined with issues of whether they should be educated and how. At the time it was believed the best educational provision was in segregated special schools. It was not until the 1960s that several studies were published questioning the benefit of special classes for children with 'mental

retardation'. The enactment of Public Law (PL 94-142) in 1975 which directed the states to plan for all handicapped children, to protect the rights of handicapped children and their parents in relation to placement, and to provide as much of the education of each handicapped child as possible in the 'mainstream' of education rather than in segregated settings, culminated in an effort by the state and districts to implement the notion of integration (Salah, 1996). Hence, since the passage of the landmark PL 94-142, the central issue in educating pupils with disabilities, has moved from establishing entitlement and access to providing quality outcome for pupils with disabilities. Historically, the change brought about by the law represents a great achievement in access.

From the above, it seems that inclusion in the Western world has come to be accepted in principle as a desirable move. Importantly, its inclusion has, however, been underpinned by legislation. As Kasond-Ng'andu & Moberg (2001) argue, without an Act of Parliament, children with disabilities have no educational legal backing and this makes it difficult for parents to seek redress when these children are denied one of their human rights - education - or are abused because of their disabilities.

### *Why inclusion?*

A useful starting point in discussing 'why inclusion', is the influential Salamanca Statement produced under the sponsorship of UNESCO in 1994 and serving as a key document in guiding inclusive developments internationally. The statement expresses high hopes for the benefits of inclusive schools, by declaring that they can provide the most effective means of educating the majority of learners and are a way of combating

discriminatory attitudes. In setting these ambitious outcomes for inclusion, the statement identifies some of the wider issues that have driven the development of inclusion. A few are discussed below.

### **Philosophy, Equity and Collective Belonging**

Inclusion is about comprehensive education, equality and collective belonging (Naicker, 1999). Comprehensive education means education for children with mixed abilities (Stubb, 1997). According to Vlachou, (1997) equality simply means giving children the same opportunity of education despite their abilities, and collective belonging indicates the education of all children under one roof. Tawney (1964) links the latter with the question of inequality in a civilised society. His reasoning is relevant when thinking about the organisation of education, for many of the features of a segregative education represent what Fuchs & Fuchs (1995 p. 73) called an affluent society's excuse for inequality. Tawney (1964) did not deny that people are born different, but argued this should not be used as an excuse for a system that throws a spotlight on those differences. He asserted that a truly civilised society strives to reduce the inequalities, which arise, from any given group and its organisation. Lewis (1999 p.14) indicates 'organisations, such as schools, should lighten and reduce those inequalities which arise from birth or circumstance, rather than exaggerate them'.

### **Effectiveness**

In many developed countries, such as the USA, the UK and Australia, there has been growing concern about the standards achieved by learners at school, the performance of the national economy, and the link between the two (Robinson, 1997; Levin, 1998). Inclusion seems to promise

that it will enhance not only the attainments of learners with disabilities, but also, by drawing the attention of schools to individual differences, the attainment of all learners (Skrtic, 1991). Not surprisingly, therefore, recent education reforms in England, for example, have simultaneously placed an emphasis on excellence in schools, the enhancement of attainment generally and excellence for all learners promoting inclusion as part of this overall strategy (DFEE, 1997a; 1997b).

### **Diversity**

Inclusive schooling puts emphasis on accommodating the diversity of the learner population. For some, the ultimate goal or purpose of building an inclusive school is to contribute towards the development of an inclusive society where all members of society are able to fulfil their potential and participate optimally, and where respect for and valuing of diversity in the context of social integration is an active value (Lazarus et al, 1999).

The principle of diversity can be used as a basis for furthering the fundamental principles of constitution in many countries of the world especially the countries of the South and thereby move us towards the development of an inclusive society. It is important to note, however, that it can also be used to move us back towards 'separate development'. For example, apartheid philosophy used cultural differences as a basis for separating people and has proved to be very destructive to great numbers of South Africans (Engelbrecht, 1999). It is important, therefore, that the principle of diversity be linked to the principle of integration to ensure that the focus on 'difference' is towards commonality rather than towards a notion of separate development. Respect for

difference and diversity is at the heart of inclusive education (Miles, 2000).

According to Lipsky and Gartner (1997) respecting diversity in the learning population, and other role-players in the learning community, simply means:

- Developing a genuine respect for all people;
- Combating prejudice and discriminatory practices (anti-bias strategies), particularly against groups who have been most discriminated against in the education community;
- Drawing on the different strengths of the human resources available in the teaching and learning context to the mutual benefit for all;
- Acknowledging and supporting the rights of all learners and others to full participation in the learning and teaching process; and
- Developing a flexible curriculum that meets the diverse needs of the learning population (Lazarus et al, 1999).

### *Changing discourse*

Both international and national patterns and trends regarding disability have undergone major shifts, which have influenced the movement towards inclusive education internationally to a large extent. These shifts centred mainly on the move from a medical discourse to a rights discourse. It is useful to provide some discussion of

discourses related to the study given their significant rôle in the construction of attitudes.

Fulcher (1989) indicates that discourses have uses rather than inherent meanings, that is they serve particular interests. There is an increasing body of knowledge, which supports the notion that medical and psychological perspectives have been very influential in shaping special education (Sigmon, 1987; Baehr & Gordenker, 1992). According to Fulcher (1989), there are many kinds of discourse, which have constructed the field of specialised education. Below I provide a discussion of three of them.

According to medical discourse, impairment is linked with disability. For example, in schools for the 'physically disabled', pupils are constructed as disabled and the disability is conceived of as an objective attribute, not a social construct. In other words, such a person is excluded from mainstream social and economic life because of a disability that is thought to be a natural and irremediable characteristic of the person. In the medical discourse the examples of people who have graduated from special schools and adapting to mainstream life are celebrated for their perseverance and individual success in overcoming diversity. The 'blind', 'deaf' or those labelled by some other disability are excluded from regular education schools and such exclusion immediately results in the perception of such people as inadequate human beings who are unfit to be included in mainstream economic and social life.

In contrast with medical discourse, much of special education in Zambia has had to do with benevolent humanitarianism. Recipients of special education were viewed as needing assistance, as objects of pity and

eternally dependent on others. As a result they were seen as underachievers and people in need of institutional care. Little is mentioned about the social workers, therapists, physiotherapists, nurses, teachers and others who benefit from this type of labelling. Whilst the work of these people is appreciated and respected, the question remains - who really benefits from this type of isolation or categorisation?

What the charity discourse promotes is that people in authority (mainly non-disabled) are always the decision-makers (Naicker, 1999). The voice of disabled people is all but erased from the production of knowledge central to disability (Miles, 2000).

The world today often views issues in terms of human rights. This is a discourse that is extending full citizenship to all people. It stresses equal opportunity, self-reliance, independence and wants rather than needs. The rights discourse has been articulated strongly at both an international and a national level, for example in the Jontien (1990) and Salamanca Statement (UNESCO, 1994).

### ***Summary: global responses to inclusion***

This section has outlined the genesis of inclusive education, the aims of inclusion and its international context.

Table 1 below, provides a summary of the movement towards inclusion from an international perspective, depicting the underlying values that have tended to inform the educational provisions for children with disabilities to date, as it moves from institutionalisation to inclusion in the community.

**Table 1 : Evolution of Services and Supports**

Focal Questions	Era of institutions	Era of deinstitutionalisation	Era of Community Membership
Who is the person of concern?	The patient	The client	The citizen
What is the typical setting?	An institution	A group home, workshop, special school, or classroom	A person's home, local business, neighbourhood school
How are services organised?	In facilities	In a continuum of options	Through an array of supports tailored to the individual
What is the model?	Custodial/medical	Developmental/behavioural	Individual support
What are the services?	Care	Programs	Support
How are services planned?	A plan of care	An individualised rehabilitation plan	A personal futures plan
Who controls the planning decision?	A professional	An interdisciplinary team	The individual.
What is the planning context?	Standards of professional practice	Team consensus	A circle of friends
What has the highest priority?	Basic needs	Skill development, behaviour management	Self-determination relationships
What is the objective?	Control or cure	Changed behaviour	Changes in environment and attitudes

Source: Lipsky and Gartner (1997:81)

In summary, there is general agreement from international literature that inclusive education:

- needs to be underpinned by clear policy formulation
- aims to enable all pupils to become full members of society
- requires service delivery in one educational environment
- is a process involving greater participation in the mainstream
- is underpinned by values of equity and collective belonging
- requires an emphasis on pupil diversity



- has moved educational discussion from a medical and charity to a rights discourse.

I have attempted to describe the emergence of an integration movement in the developed nations in the 1960s. I have also shown how this has transformed itself into an apparently more radical inclusion movement and has broadened its international scope until inclusive education can now be seen as constituting a global agenda.

## **Section two: teachers' attitudes towards inclusion**

### *What are attitudes?*

Attitudes are an important component and key focus in this investigation and need further review. This section presents a definition of attitudes and how they impact on an individual belief and responses to presented situations. Also included are results from research on teacher attitudes towards inclusion of pupils with disabilities.

Attitudes represent an individual's general feeling of liking or disliking for the stimulus object. A person's attitudes towards the object are determined by beliefs that the selected object has certain attributes that make it more or less favourable to the individual (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Engelbrecht, 1996; Nyewe & Green, 1999). The person's attitudes toward the object are a function of his/her evaluations of and experience with these attributes (Dyson & Forlin, 1999). Teachers and pupils form attitudes about each other through daily interactions, which can reinforce a pupil's opinion about him/herself and the attributes of others, involved (Goodspeed & Celotta, 1982; Hogg & Vaughan, 1995; Davies & Green, 1998).

Downie et al, (1991 p. 98) define an attitude as 'a relatively stable tendency to respond consistently to particular people, objects, or situations.' This definition seems to raise several points. Firstly, attitudes are 'relatively stable', and therefore, they can change and can be changed. Secondly, the phrase 'tendency to respond consistently' implies that a person's behavioural response in a situation provides an indication of their attitude towards it. By observing someone's behaviour it is possible to deduce his or her attitudes. However, the qualifier that it is a 'tendency to respond consistently' indicates that it is possible to behave inconsistently with one's attitudes. A person's behaviour does not necessarily represent those attitudes in a straightforward manner. Judging attitudes from behaviour involves a lot of inference.

According to Tibebu (1995) there are three reasons why this may be so. The first is that a person's attitude may on some occasions not lead to the corresponding behaviour because a strong desire may lead to action inconsistent with the attitude. He cites an example, a person may have a favourable attitude towards losing weight, but be overcome by a strong desire to eat rich food. If such desires consistently dominate a person's behaviour, some people may come to doubt the existence of the favourable attitude towards losing weight.

The second reason is the uncertainty of inference from behaviour to attitude is that people have many attitudes, and these may on occasion conflict. For example, a favourable attitude to losing weight may be held at the same time as a favourable attitude to courtesy, or to a specific hostess, inconsistent with the favourable

attitude to diet but consistent with the favourable attitude to courtesy (Gross, 1996)

Thirdly, the definition states that an attitude is 'a relatively stable tendency to respond consistently to particular people, objects or situations'. This simply means that an attitude must be towards something.

Although it seems trivial to talk about holding attitudes towards something, the important point for our purposes is that it is possible to hold an attitude towards another attitude. For example, an elderly person may have an attitude of fear or anxiety towards falling, but at the same time have an attitude of contempt towards the first attitude.

Attitudes have also been referred to as a set of ideas charged with emotions that predisposes a class of actions to a particular class of social situations (Triandis, 1971; Panda & Bartel, 1972; Tibebu, 1995). According to McGuire (1969); Ajzen & Fishbein (1980) and Gross (1996) there are three components that form part of the development of attitudes. These are: 1) Affect, which relates to the feelings of liking or disliking the attitude object. 2) Cognitive, which is the knowledge or beliefs a person has about the attitude object; 3) Conation, which refers to the behavioural intentions or actions of a person.

These three components are further explained by Triandis (1971) and Jonas et al, (1995). For example, the manner in which an individual defines the attitude object is reportedly an aspect of the cognitive component such as the term 'disability' being used to describe an extended sample of people. The belief held by an individual about such a category leads to stereotypical attitudes that result in expressions that the members of this category

(disability) all have certain common traits or attributes. Stereotypes are formed on the basis of a minimum amount of evidence especially when the individuals involved presume to know what kind of traits and attitudes go together. While, conation indicates behaviours towards the attitude object, options are extremely limited. The individual cannot move toward, away from or against the attitude object.

The process of how an attitude is formed may include direct behavioural experiences (Regan & Fazio, 1977; Davies & Green, 1998), prior exposure (Fazio et al, 1983; Donald, 1993), and personality factors such as self-monitoring (Goleman, 1996). Self-monitoring requires the individual to make choices based on either knowledge about themselves or on situational information (Zanna et al, 1986; Green, 1997).

According to Triandis (1971) and Bruning et al (1995) people develop attitudes because the attitudes: 1) Help them understand the world around them by organising and simplifying information; 2) Protect self-esteem by making it possible for individuals to avoid unpleasant truths about themselves; 3) Help them adjust to a complex world by making it more likely that the behaviour selected will maximise the likelihood of consistency in their environment; 4) Allow individuals to express fundamental ideas and values.

### ***Significance of teachers' attitudes***

Teachers' attitudes toward children in general education classrooms positively or adversely affect pupil achievement, behaviour, and the success of implemented programmes in the classroom. The same is true with special needs and inclusion programmes. Siegel & Jausovec

(1994 p. 2) state that one major factor influencing the success of inclusion is the attitudes of teachers, and that 'inclusion may be defeated if teachers do not hold positive attitudes toward this practice'.

Researchers (e.g. Siegel & Jausovec, 1994; Siegel & Moore, 1994; Desta, 2000) have identified teacher attitudes as a major concern in exploring teacher effects upon inclusion with disabilities. Teacher's attitudes are widely regarded as key influences on the success or failure of inclusive education programmes (Eichinger et al, 1991; Siegel & Jausovec, 1994; Siegel & Moore, 1994). According to Kelly (1955), beliefs are created from an internal organisation of experience into a coherent system. Experience in everyday interactions with each other serves to confirm some beliefs and challenge others. This system is used to predict others' behaviours and guide one's own behaviours, perceptions and judgements. In a classroom it would follow that beliefs that teachers hold influence their classroom behaviours and that understanding teachers' beliefs is important for predicting teaching practice (Ashton & Webb, 1986; Pajares, 1992).

Pajares (1992) argues that since teachers' beliefs strongly affect their behaviours, knowing their beliefs helps to predict behaviour (e.g. Kelly, 1955; Ajzen, 1991). Winzer (1987) believes that successful inclusion of pupils with disabilities may depend on teachers' beliefs, attitudes and perceptions regarding inclusion. Of course, beliefs, attitudes and perceptions cannot be measured directly. They are only inferred by what people say, intend or do (Pajares, 1992; Roach, 1998). When there is a cluster of interconnected beliefs predisposed to action, the cluster is considered to be an attitude.

Example of beliefs that one would expect to be important in teachers' attitudes about inclusion would include beliefs about disability and teachers' roles and responsibilities in meeting the needs of pupils with disabilities, beliefs about including specific types of pupils with disabilities and beliefs about the service delivery models used to teach pupils with disabilities.

### ***Fears and concerns about inclusion***

Although the movement for 'inclusion' is part of a broad human rights agenda, some educators have serious reservations about supporting the widespread placement of pupils with disabilities into their general education classrooms. Numerous studies have been conducted to determine teachers' attitudes to inclusion. According to Eichinger et al (1991) and Miller (1996), there are three factors that relate to teachers' attitudes toward inclusive education: demographics (age, gender, level of education), environment (availability of support services, administrative support, grade level taught, class size), and experience (exposure to and knowledge of pupils with disabilities). Wilczenski (1992) notes that other components affecting teacher attitudes include the differing requirements of physical, academic, behavioural, and social accommodations of pupils in inclusive classrooms. In general, the greater the pupils needs in these areas, the more negative the attitudes about inclusion become.

In a study conducted by Villa et al (1996 p.15), special education and general education teachers expressed strong, negative feelings about inclusion. They felt that the people responsible for inclusion decisions were 'out of touch with what is going on in schools, people whose ideas work in theory but not in practice'. The teachers

interviewed also expressed concerns about the safety of pupils, the possibility of an increase in lawsuits, inadequate school facilities, how pupils would be evaluated, how grades would be a given, and what would result if pupils were unable to meet performance objectives. They also expressed the fear that pupils with disabilities would stand out in the general education classroom and that may be embarrassing for them. The responses from the teachers interviewed could be the reaction of a subgroup of teachers who have not experienced the positive aspects of inclusion. Whether or not teachers have experienced inclusion an impact on their attitudes to it is a theme from the literature.

Another concern of these teachers and others who have been surveyed in other formal and informal studies, is the perception that inclusion would result in a greater workload and more of a demand on their time. They felt pupils with disabilities need more special attention and planning time than they are able to give them, and simply do not have the time to meet all the needs of each and every pupil (Friend & Cook, 1993; Villa et al, 1996). Teachers' attitudes appear to reflect a lack of confidence or a lack of ownership.

One major concern common to most teachers interviewed or surveyed (e.g. Hellier, 1988; Phillips et al, 1990; Clough & Lindsay, 1991; Rose & Smith, 1993; LeRoy & Simpson, 1996; Miller, 1996) is the fact that the definition of inclusion is not concrete nor operationalised. Many fear inclusion because they do not understand what it is and do not have a clear understanding of the purposes of inclusion. Pajares (1992), indicates that some models of inclusion may mean 'dumping' pupils with disabilities into general education

classrooms, without effective support systems. This gives inclusion a bad name, as many studies on the topic of inclusion (e.g. Clough & Lindsay, 1991; Giangreco et al, 1993; Galis, 1994; Villa et al, 1996; Wiener & Harris, 1997; Nyewe & Green, 1999; Desta, 2000), assert effective support systems and collaboration among all staff are of major importance in an effective inclusive model.

According to Janney et al (1995: 436), 'if general education teachers are to become committed to change, they need to gain an understanding of the purpose of inclusion'.

A major concern about inclusion that is common to teachers is that they feel they are incapable of implementing an inclusive education model. The general consensus is that teachers feel a great need for more information related to teaching learners with disabilities before an inclusive programme can be effective (Donald, 1993; Davies & Green, 1998). They express fears about not knowing how to teach pupils with disabilities. The inadequate training of general education teachers in meeting the needs of learners with disabilities seem to result from their reluctance to teach them. Blair (1983: 54) states that teachers' educational needs 'stagger the imagination'. For example, in the November/December (1993) issue of Instructor Newsletter in USA, one teacher wrote, 'I didn't know what to expect of them; I didn't want to do something that would hurt those pupils' (Friend & Cook, 1993 p. 54). Another teacher in the study conducted by Janney et al (1995 p. 433) stated that 'It's fear of the unknown...You're afraid they might hurt you or you might hurt them. It's lack of education, not knowing what to expect'.



Knoff (1985) found that most sampled general and special education teachers in his study perceived general education teachers, as not having the skills needed to teach pupils with disabilities. Villa et al (1996) indicated from their study that many general and special education teachers expressed a concern about general teachers not being adequately prepared to meet the needs of pupils with disabilities in general education classrooms. In the same study conducted by Villa et al (1996 p.24-25), one special education teacher said, 'if this is the way it's going to be, it has to start at the undergraduate level... The general education classroom teacher is going to take many courses in special education'.

Another teacher in the same study maintained that 'the only solution is preparing teachers to be double majors (in special education and general education)' (p. 25).

### *Optimism and confidence about inclusion*

Diebold & Trentham (1987) investigated whether special education teachers' prediction of general education class teachers' attitudes towards the inclusion of pupils with disabilities were significantly different from the actual attitudes expressed by general education teachers. General and special education teachers representing kindergarten through 12<sup>th</sup> grades in four school systems in Eastern Alabama responded to a questionnaire. An overall return rate of 80% was obtained; 216 of 268 questionnaire sent out were returned. General education teachers were asked to respond to each item by circling the response that corresponded most closely with their feelings about the statement, as they believed general education colleagues in their respective school systems would respond. Results of the Diebold and Trentham study

indicated an optimism and willingness of the general education teachers to include pupils with disabilities into the regular programme that would surprise special education teachers. Special education teachers consistently underestimate the positiveness of general education teachers. Areas measured included:- (1) willingness to teach pupils with disabilities, (2) feelings of confidence about skills in carrying out the inclusion programme in the general education classroom, (3) sufficiency of time for carrying out the inclusive programme, (4) effects of teacher input into the educational programme, and (5) special education teachers' knowledge.

Diebold & Trentham (1987) offer the following factors as contributing to the optimism expressed by general education teachers:- (a) 76.3% reported that they had participated in at least one course or in-service workshop on inclusion; (b) 18.6% reported they had successful experiences over time with pupils with disabilities in the general education classroom environment; (c) 94.7% reported they had taught or were currently teaching pupils with disabilities; (d) 67.2% reported they personally experienced success in including pupils with disabilities; and (e) 83.2% reported they knew of other general education teachers who had successfully included pupils with disabilities in their classes.

The literature shows that attitudes amongst teachers are not consistent towards pupils with different impairments. In Illinois (USA), general education teachers in four school districts (one from urban Chicago, one from Chicago suburbs and two from rural areas) were surveyed (Phillips et al, 1990). The survey was conducted in 1989

at a time when Illinois ranked fifth highest nationally in the number of pupils receiving services in segregated setting, or withdrawal programmes. A total of 314 responses were received out of 1,012 surveys (31%) which were issued. The results of the survey indicated that as a group, the respondents were willing to teach pupils who are gifted, as well as pupils with physical disabilities. They were not willing to teach pupils with intellectual disabilities. They particularly indicated a lack of skills in teaching pupils with severe/profound disabilities, severe emotional disturbances and visual impairment.

To successfully handle pupils with disabilities in their classes, the respondents ranked preferences in the following order:- (a) special materials, (b) classroom aids, (c) consultation with special education teachers, (d) in-service training in behaviour management and strategies, (e) more 'hands-on' experiences, (f) more compensation, and (g) college work in special education. These teachers expressed confidence in their ability to work with parents, provide individual assistance, adapt materials, participate in Individualised Education Programmes (IEP) conferences, adapt curriculum and manage behaviours. They did not feel confident in writing IEPs, or interpreting assessment results.

Another study by Schemm & Vaughn (1992) surveyed 775 elementary, middle and high school teachers representing 39 schools in metropolitan school districts in Southern Illinois. The findings from this study suggest that teachers were most concerned about having pupils with emotional or behavioural problems in their classes. The respondents in this study were willing to make modifications for pupils, such as for test-taking or

working on assignments, but were not willing to make curriculum modifications or spend time modifying strategies to meet the needs of pupils with disabilities. The factors that these general education teachers viewed as barriers for including pupils with disabilities covered: 'budgetary factors, accountability factors, access to equipment and materials, and physical environment in the classroom and in the school'.

Bowman (1986), in her 14 nation UNESCO study reported a wide difference in teacher opinions regarding inclusion of children with disabilities. The countries surveyed were widespread (Egypt, Jordan, Columbia, Mexico, Venezuela, Botswana, Senegal, Zambia, Australia, Thailand, Czechoslovakia, Italy, Norway and Portugal). The teachers were found to favour different types of children for inclusion into ordinary classes. Although teacher responses varied relative to the development of their educational systems, in general education and special education in particular, there was a general hierarchy of conditions that were more or less regarded as acceptable for inclusion. Severe learning difficulties and multiple handicaps were all considered least favourable, while physical conditions were seen as most easy to manage. Overall, about 25% of teachers felt that pupils with sensory impairments could be taught in mainstream classrooms, while less than 10% of the teachers surveyed held this view for pupils with severe intellectual impairment and multiple handicaps. Bowman noted that teachers in countries which had laws requiring inclusion, expressed more favourable views.

In a comparative study in Devon (England) and Arizona (USA) Thomas (1985), found that the balance of opinion was against the inclusion of children with intellectual

disabilities in England and mild learning difficulties in the USA. Also in this study, attitudes were more positive towards inclusion when there was confidence in selecting appropriate teaching methods and when there was a traditional policy of locational inclusion.

Semmel et al (1991) developed a scale designed to elicit teachers' attitudes, beliefs, and perceptions toward the two types of service delivery models (withdrawal versus in- class). They administered the scale to a sample of general education and special education teachers in two states of the USA. Generally, the findings indicated that both groups of teachers favoured the withdrawal model over the reforms indicated by the General Education Initiative. The results were consistent with a study reported by Coates (1989) who found that general education teachers do not agree with the tenets set by the General Education Initiative.

Much of the literature reviewed seems to maintain that teachers who have more confidence in their skills will have improved attitudes. Teachers' perceptions of their ability to successfully include pupils with disabilities into their classes must be considered in measuring their attitudes toward inclusion. In general, teachers do not feel educated enough to implement inclusion successfully, and this perception affects their attitudes.

In a study by Galis (1994), there was an overall positive attitude toward inclusion on the part of the groups of teachers surveyed. They suggested that inclusion could be positive and were hopeful about its success (Villa et al, 1996).

### ***Summary: teachers' attitudes to inclusion***

To summarise, much of the literature reviewed on teachers' attitudes towards inclusion reveals that both general education and special education teachers feel that the benefits of inclusion far outweigh any negative aspects of it. On the other hand a search of the literature has revealed that teachers also have concerns about inclusion.

Some concerns raised by teachers are:

- no guarantee about the safety of pupils with disabilities
- the possibility of an increase in lawsuits
- inadequate school facilities
- how pupils would be evaluated how grades would be given and the results if pupils were unable to meet performance objectives.
- increased work load putting more pressure on their time.
- the definition of inclusion is not clear nor operationalised because, they do not know what it is and do not have a clear understanding of the purpose of inclusion.
- lack of information relating to teaching learners with disabilities and the need for further training before inclusive programme can be effective.
- lack of knowledge about what to expect from pupils with disabilities and not wanting to hurt them.
- pupils with disabilities would stand out in the general education classroom and that may stigmatise them.

While teachers acknowledge there are many models of inclusion, they fear that some models may mean dumping pupils with disabilities into the general education classroom without an effective support system.

In general ordinary teachers' attitudes are related to five underlying dimensions (Larrivee, 1982):

- The teachers' general philosophy about inclusive education and its impact on the effective and emotional development of the disabled child;
- The classroom behaviour of the disabled child;
- The perceptions of teachers of their own ability to teach pupils with disabilities
- The impact the disabled child has on classroom management. Across the world there is inconsistency in perceptions of which difficulties have the greatest import on classroom management and
- The impact of inclusion on the academic and social growth of the disabled child.

Attitudes of teachers, however, may not be different from the general public in which they have been brought up, a conclusion supported by studies on attitudes of various professionals working with the disabled (Panda & Bertel, 1972).

Inclusive education is becoming a more widely implemented practice in schools across many countries of the world especially in the developed countries. In order to ensure successful inclusive programmes and practices to meet the needs of all learners, a look at attitudes of teachers towards inclusion of pupils with disabilities in general education classrooms in schools which have some experience of including such pupils is crucial. Indeed

the attitudes of teachers is of prime concern because they can influence the success or failure of inclusion (Tibebu, 1995; Moberg, 2000).



## **Chapter 3      Inclusion in the Zambian context**

### **Introduction**

In chapter 2 I made reference to inclusive practice particularly in developed countries such as the UK and USA because of the historical connections there have been in educational provision as a whole and the inevitable commonality of English language across these countries. In this section, I attempt to summarise the current general practice of education including that of educating pupils with disabilities in Zambia.

Zambia is a land locked country located in Central Africa, surrounded by eight countries namely, Botswana, Namibia, Angola, Democratic Republic of Congo, Tanzania, Malawi, Mozambique, and Zimbabwe. The country covers 752 600 sq km or three times the size of Great Britain. Much of Zambia's land mass, about 56 000 sq km is reserved for game parks. It is administratively divided into nine provinces and seventy-two districts. It has seventy-three ethnic groups and seven major languages, namely, Nyanja, Bemba, Lozi, Tonga, Luvale, Kaonde and Lunda. English is the official language used in the media and work place, as well as in schools as a language of instruction (Kasonde- Ng'andu, 2001).

The estimated population for Zambia in 2005 is 9.6 million. The country is one of the most highly urbanised in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) with about 42 per cent of its population living in urban areas. The population has been growing at a fast pace with a mid 1990s population growth rate of 2.7 per cent per annum (GRZ, 1996).

Zambia has been exposed to some of the economic changes that have affected the developed world, for example the

process of industrialisation which was accompanied by the rise of mass education systems. In addition she has been subjected to her distinctive pressures. The limited services that are available come under increasing pressure from rapid population growth. In order to compete in the world economy, Zambia has frequently attempted to upgrade its social services- particularly the education service and has been encouraged strongly in this attempt by external donors on whose good offices she has to some extent depended (Kelly, 1998). These developments have placed considerable pressures on the strictly limited central budget that is available. While Zambia has sought to develop an education system, which is comparable with those in the developed World, she has been compelled to do so on strictly limited financial resources. It is against this background that 'inclusion' is to be understood in the current study.

The themes included in this section comprise:

- Historical antecedents of inclusion in Zambia
- Enrolment Trends in Special Needs Education
- Curriculum
- Problems Affecting the Education System
- Resources
- Formal inclusion in Zambia
- Policy Issues
- Identification and Assessment
- Barriers to inclusion in Zambia
- Attitudes to inclusion in Zambia
- Summary

## **Historical antecedents of inclusion in Zambia**

### *Disability and Zambian Culture*

Although I believe that there is diversity in matters of detail between customs of different tribes and localities in Zambia, here I try to trace general uniformity with special reference to the Ngoni, Tonga, Lenje Chewa and Bemba people. The justification for selecting these five tribes is the fact that I am more familiar with them.

Traditional beliefs are built on the interplay of culture and religion in most cultures and relates disability to supernatural powers as punishment. Such traditional beliefs are very common in today's Zambia. Particularly among the rural and less educated people.

In the 18<sup>th</sup> century disabled persons were not regarded as people. Those with severe learning difficulties were referred to as Ifipuba (fools), dead things and God's people (Simwaka, 1985; Tembo, 1988; Sovalainen, 1997; Kisanji, 1998). They were tied up to trees and left to die in the wilderness. Although Zambia has formally adopted a policy to include them in mainstream society, some Zambian people still seem to consider disabled people as incapable of human feelings and therefore undeserving of human compassion (Gearheart, 1980).

Serious disabilities still seem to be dealt with summarily at the time of birth. Those who have a chance of surviving through harsh condemnation may never be exposed to a normal life in the community. Often they are hidden away from community because parents think if they are seen this could be a bad omen and viewed as a shame by some families. Equally they are not taken to school to learn. They are not regarded as assets who can contribute

to the economy of the family and that of the nation at large (Mwape & Tembo, 1999).

Disabled people still bear an extreme social stigma throughout the Zambian population. A good illustration of this is the complete opposition of most people towards marriage of non-disabled to disabled persons.

Sometimes there is a mixing of traditional beliefs and modern knowledge in the everyday behaviours of families with disabled members. In many cases, as Savolainen (1997) points out, the parents of a disabled child first contact medical doctors, but after failing to get any concrete improvement in their child's condition resort to traditional treatments like holy water.

In this chapter a number of traditional beliefs will be discussed that relate to attitudes towards disability in society:

- Pity and Sympathy,
- Helplessness,
- Sin and Punishment,
- Fear and Rejection,
- Religious charity.

### **Pity and Sympathy**

One of the most common reactions of ordinary people to the most superficial contact with people with disabilities in Zambia is a feeling of pity and sympathy. This is a feeling usually expressed in highly sentimental terms. Many people with disabilities encounter such reactions whenever they are interacting with them, but often do not like being pitied. I am sure, based on my teaching experience that people with disabilities do not consider disablement as helplessness. Zambian society needs to understand that pity incapacitates people with

disabilities and separates them from the normal. In fact, the effect of pity on people with disabilities in Zambia is rather out of proportion to the actual limitations imposed by individual disability.

### **Helplessness**

Mwape and Tembo (1999) write:

'the public considers people with disabilities as useless, not able to perform anything, and as a group who always seek charity, are evil and disturbers' (p.327).

It seems that ordinary people are thoroughly convinced that people with disabilities are helpless and live in a world of their own. The universality of considering people with disabilities as helpless and useless is also revealed in a casual discussion made with Katate in Kabwe (Zambia). 'Many people treat me as if I am helpless and useless, as a man who consumes without producing and that I am a burden to the nation'.

It seems difficult to test such beliefs, for there is nothing in disability that prevents an individual from doing something. However, in spite of hundred of people with disabilities throughout Zambia who live productive married lives, these beliefs do persist.

### **Sin and punishment**

Sin and punishment seem to be the cardinal cause of disability attributed by the majority of Zambian population. In my experience it is very common to hear 'what did they do to deserve such a child'? A disability is considered a punishment for a bad sin committed by parents during the time of pregnancy, and that they are responsible for what happened to their child. To support this, one of the actors in the Kalabula (1992) study

indicated that 'the individual must have done something to deserve the loss of limbs'.

It seems that Biblical accounts of the Old Testament may have greatly influenced the dissemination of the belief that sin and punishment are some of the causes of disability through the work of missionaries.

In the ancient Hebrew culture, as presented in the Old Testament, for example, blindness was associated with the power of God. This view is found in Genesis 19: 9-11 and Mathews 5: 27-29. It is also believed that whenever a person with Learning disabilities is caught in a fit it is said he/she is talking and thanking God for what he/she is.

### **Fear and rejection**

Traditional beliefs about disabilities can be expressed in various ways (Tibebu, 1995). They include rules on how to relate with disabled persons. For example, children are not allowed to interact with disabled persons, pregnant women are kept apart from the disabled in fear that the disability may be transmitted to the unborn child, and the family of a disabled person may even hide him/her because of shame and fear of severe social stigma. In many of these beliefs, disability is viewed as contagious, although mostly not in the same way as ordinary illness. It is believed that the contamination occurs through evil spirits.

The rejection of people with disabilities can be illustrated in the practice of leaving the afflicted child in a churchyard. The belief that disability is caused by sin and punishment has resulted in the general rejection of the carrier of the stigma.

One lady when asked about marital relations with the blind says:

'I must confess that I do not like people with disabilities at all and that in their presence, I feel something of the same sensation. I do not feel comfortable when I am with them'.

The implication of a stigma is not that a person is abnormal, but that s/he is physically, psychologically, morally, and emotionally inferior. Therefore, carriers of stigma should be avoided because the stigma itself makes those who associate with them inferior too.

### **Religious charity**

In many developing countries the first schools and institutions were founded by missionaries as a form of charity. This is the case with Zambia.

Chisholm et al (1998) note that the colonial period can be divided into three eras: that of the British South African Company from 1890 to 1924, the British Colonial Office administration from 1924 to 1952 and the Federation of Northern Rhodesia and Nyasaland from 1953 to 1963. During the first period, education for both children with and without special educational needs was the responsibility of missionaries. The founding of institutions for the disabled is said to have been based on the notion that since nobody else was doing anything, it was the moral obligation of these philanthropic organizations to contribute to the welfare of all disadvantaged people and to the most disadvantaged in particular, since they are also 'God's children'. The issue here is that the origin of the justification lies in the idea of giving charity to the lesser people and

not exactly in taking their due human rights into consideration.

### *Colonial and post independence education system*

Colonial rule saw the introduction of more formal and professional control over education. However, the education system inherited by Zambia at independence in 1964 was underdeveloped. At the time of independence, there were only 107 Zambian University graduates, of whom four were female (Kelly, 1991). The immediate post-independence goal therefore, became the provision of trained human resources. The First National Development Plan (1966-1979) aimed at providing sufficient places to ensure that all children received at least four years of primary education. Although the government was not able to meet these targets, primary education expanded dramatically during this period. However, more emphasis was given to the expansion of secondary and technical education, with intake to secondary schools increasing by 27 per cent per annum, on average, between 1964 and 1969 (Kelly, 1991).

Provision for special needs education was probably, as would be expected when resources are limited, worse off than ordinary education. It was a situation of doing without except for the little that was provided by exclusively voluntary agencies, which mainly focused on the visually and hearing impaired (Kalabula, 1989; Katwishi, 1995). The African Reformed Church (formerly the Dutch Reformed Church) opened the first school for the visually impaired in 1955 at Magwero in Chipata, Eastern province of Zambia as well as a school for the hearing impaired. About the same time, another school for the visually impaired was established at Mambilima (Johnson Falls) where currently there is a residential



special school for children with physical disabilities. In the mid-1950s, other schools for children with disabilities were established (Muhau, 1996).

By 1971, the following schools were in existence: for visually impaired pupils: 7 primary schools, 6 secondary school units and one unit of Home Economics in a Secondary school; for deaf pupils: 1 primary school and 4 units in primary schools; for physically disabled pupils: 1 primary school and 2 leprosaria; for mentally retarded pupils: 5 units in primary schools and 5 hospital teaching services units (Nyambose, 1999).

### *The current educational system of Zambia*

Mainly two Ministries manage the education sector: the Ministry of Education (MOE) and the Ministry of Science, Technology and Vocational Training (MSTVT). The MOE is responsible for providing primary and secondary education, teacher training and continuing education. It is also responsible at policy level for University and pre-school education. The Department of Technical Education and Vocational Training (DTEVT) under the MSTVT offers training at technologist, technician and craft levels in technically oriented programmes (Kasonde-Ng'andu and Moberg, 2001).

There are also two other ministries that have some small-scale involvement in the provision of education. These are the Ministry of Sport, Youth and Child Development (MSYCD) and the Ministry of Community Development and Social Services (MCDSS). These two ministries offer apprenticeship skills and adult literacy programmes.

Decentralisation of the system is a major priority, involving not only decentralisation of specified powers and programmes by the board of education, but also

restructuring of the Ministry of Education itself to ensure greater efficiency and accountability. Within the decentralised system, the ministry headquarters will retain the responsibility for key national functions of drafting legislation, formulating policies, planning at national level, mobilisation and location of resources, development of a national curriculum, setting of national standards and supervision, monitoring and evaluation. At school level, the head-teacher is in charge of managing the school and serving as a link between the school and the Ministry through the District Education Officer at district level. The head-teacher is also the link between the school and the community through the Parent- Teacher Association (PTA).

### *The existing and proposed structure of education*

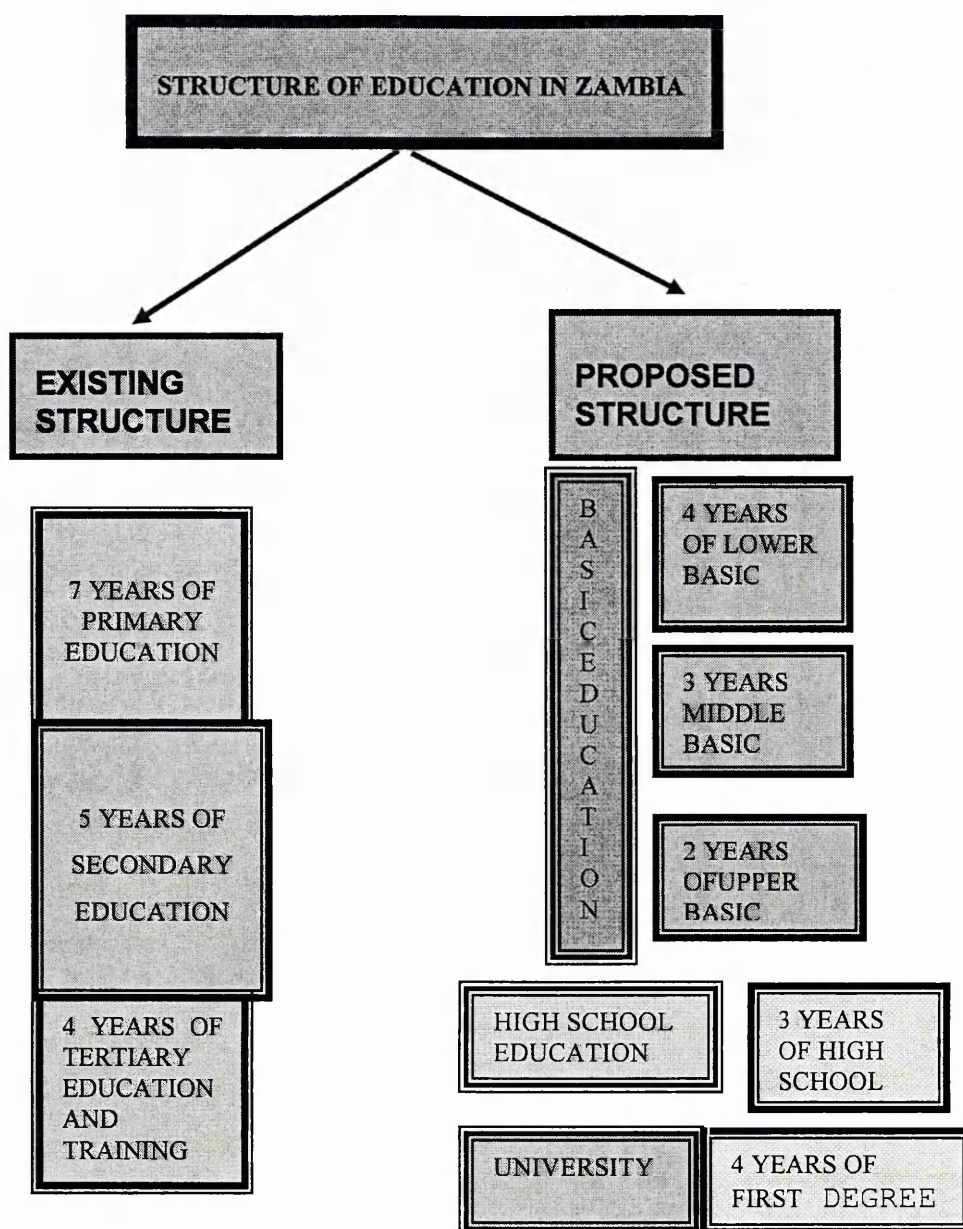
As already indicated above, the provision of education in Zambia is a joint venture between the MOE and MSTVT. According to the Planning Unit (Ministry of Education, 2000) there were about 1 555 707 pupils enrolled in 4290 primary schools in 1999. Of all these schools 84% offered a full primary course that is grades 1 up to 7. There were 37117 teachers of which 85% were qualified. The overall pupil: teacher ratio was 42:1, and the average class size was 40. The net enrolment for the age group 7-13 years was 81% (MOE, 2000).

In terms of physical facilities in primary schools the plan indicates that there were 12150 classrooms, yielding an overall pupil teacher ratio of 60:1 or 70:1. Furniture is also a major problem. The plan further reveals that a significant proportion well over 50%, of grades 1-7 pupils were being taught while sitting on the floor. The lack of proper writing surfaces, coupled with discomfort in sitting on cold mud or concrete floor during harsh

winter made learning difficult. There was also an extreme shortage of instructional materials, making it difficult for children to learn.

For administrative purposes, Zambia is divided into 72 districts. Primary education is managed mainly at district and school level. The Planning Unit reveals that in 2000 there were three district Officers (District Education Officers; Education Officer and District Inspector of Schools) for each of the districts giving a total of around 216 officers in total. The Plan stipulates that these low numbers coupled with transport and other limitations makes the task of inspecting each school very difficult.

The current education system in Zambia follows a 7-5-4 structure (seven years primary, five years secondary and four years of tertiary education and training). The secondary sector is divided into two years of junior secondary and three years of senior secondary. However, the 1996 national Educational Policy proposed changing the education system to a 9-3-4 structure, comprising nine years of basic education (with grades 1 to 4 referred to as 'lower basic', grades 5 to 7 as 'middle basic' and grades 8 to 9 as 'upper basic'), three years of high school education and, as before four years University to first degree. The move to the new structure is not yet fully implemented.



### *Enrolment trends in primary schools*

The Ministry of Education's aim is to achieve 100 per cent enrolment in lower and middle basic (grades 1-7) by 2005, and at the basic level (1-9) by 2015. The government has however, been slow in implementing the change in structure because of financial constraints. Although universal primary education is close to being attained, the challenge in attaining the target is

greater at the level where enrolment is substantially lower, and the gender gap wider.

There are more males than females enrolled, except for Lusaka Province where enrolment for girls increased in 1997 (M= 98,642; F= 98, 882) and 1998 (M= 99, 667; F= 99 723). The numbers also include children with disabilities.

In a large number of primary school pupils are lost from the system before ever reaching the final year. The Planning Unit reveals that every year, around 10% of the pupils from each grade fail to move on to the final year of the primary cycle.

One of the stark realities underlying this loss of pupils before completing their primary education is that the great majority of pupils with disabilities have not been identified and as a result they are not receiving appropriate support. Nyambose (1997) notes that only 1% of disabled children are enrolled in schools of any kind, special and mainstream.

## **Curriculum**

A previous study by Pritchard (1991) perceives education as the transmission of the values and accumulated knowledge to society. Longwe (1997 p. 5) who considers 'education' as a 'system through which a society prepares its citizens for their individual, communal and national responsibilities' enhances this definition. Such a system has an element of learning, which is the process of change in people based on experience.

The Zambian Curriculum Centre prescribes the Zambian curriculum centrally. All pupils, irrespective of disability, are expected to do what is prescribed in the curriculum. Children with disabilities learn through

methods appropriate to their able-bodied colleagues. A lot needs to be done to modify or differentiate the curriculum in order to provide a balance that takes into account their individual needs without losing sight of the objectives pursued in common.

The Curriculum Development Centre has developed a curriculum framework to be used in Basic Schools (MOE, 2000). In relation to pupils with disabilities, the framework emphasises that it is the duty of teachers to be aware of the diverse nature of needs and be sensitive to the signs indicating disabilities. It further states that it is the responsibility of each and every teacher to adapt the teaching methods in order to suit pupils' strengths and weaknesses.

Although it is stipulated that teachers should be aware of the diverse needs of learners it cannot be taken for granted that pupils with disabilities have access to education at an equitable level like their counterparts, the non-disabled. As stated above, the Zambian curriculum seems to leave everything in the hands of the teacher instead of spelling out what they should do in meeting the needs of all learners. According to some inclusionists (Wang & Zollers, 1990; Ainscow, 1991; Florian, 1998, Booth, 1999) all state curricula should build on pupils' strengths, interests, and experiences and give the learner an opportunity to become creative, innovative, enterprising and capable of leadership to equip them for their future lives as workers and citizens. I am not sure of the degree to which this is practised, because all teachers may or may not have the skills of differentiation.

## **Problems affecting the education system**

Problems affecting the education system as a whole will necessarily have an influence on attitudes to inclusion which is seen as education for those most in need of resources.

Zambia's population is largely young, with about 48 per cent being below 15 years of age. About a third of the population is of school going age (7-18 years). These demographic figures have serious implications for the provision of education in Zambia. The current high rate of population growth implies a continued need to expand education services over the long term which in turn, entails providing adequate financial and human resources to meet the escalating demand.

It should be mentioned, however, that although the population growth is disastrous in terms of growth, a counter factor is the devastating impact of HIV/AIDS, on society. In relation to the supply and demand of education, deaths of teachers are rising sharply, which in turn has led to a high dropout rate and low enrolment among pupils because of the teacher shortage. According to available statistics, the number of teachers who have died from 'all causes' in 1997 and 1998 was 600 and 1, 200 respectively (Ministry of Health, 1998). 'To make matters worse, teachers have been known to infect their own pupils and members of the surrounding communities' (Kelly et al, 1998).

The late 1970s and early 1980s saw Zambia's economy decline to such an extent that it became reclassified from a middle-income country to a low-income country. Inadequate financial resources, inefficient management, inappropriate policies, state interference, state patronage, lack of determined political will and

corruption, all played their part thereafter in obstructing real economic growth and in reducing the country to penury (Kelly, 1994:12; Ng'andu and Moberg, 2001). Also poverty which had been estimated to be 70 percent in 1999 was a serious threat to the education sector in the country (WHO, 1999).

The Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP), adopted vigorously by the government in the early 1990s, transformed the economy into a liberalised one (CSO, 1993). It entails among other things, a reduction in the percentage of total resources devoted to social services such as education and health. Both intended and unintended effects of structural changes have led to numerous retrenchments and redundancies, thereby affecting thousands of households in terms of capacity to continue supporting their families adequately. Between 1991 and 1998, real GDP growth remained virtually unchanged, growing at only 0.45 per cent per annum, on average. Poor economic performance was particularly evident in early 1990s, when real GDP declined (World Bank, 1999).

The amount actually spent on education has fallen substantially in real terms since SAP commenced in 1992/93. In recent years, education has accounted for about 2.5 per cent of GDP compared with 5-6 per cent in the mid 1980s 6-9 per cent in neighbouring countries, and 3.9 per cent in Sub-Saharan Africa as a whole (Kelly, 1998).

## **Resources**

After a dynamic period of growth and development following the attainment of independence in 1964, the Zambian economy ran into increasing difficulties during



the 1970s, 1980s and 1990s. Due to lack of financial resources, the implementation of programmes including education fell below expected targets. Productivity in the industrial sector significantly declined, while morale in the civil service also slipped. Bureaucracy in offices grew out of manageable proportions, while production dropped disastrously. To a considerable extent, this decline reflected the impact of the world recession on copper prices and demand, the rise in oil prices, due to failure of the world community to agree on practical steps toward a new economic order. The gulf war crisis and its resultant effects, led to rocketing prices on virtually everything in support of human life. The decline in the economy, of course, affected the development and improvement of social services for citizens, including health and education.

Financial resource is the key to the development and implementation of social programmes. For example, the availability of financial resource is important for the adoption of the curriculum because learning cannot take place without teaching and learning aids. At independence, the Ministry of Education used to be allocated with an adequate amount of money, which made the sector develop in terms of infrastructure and expansion of old ones as compared to today. Due to the general cutbacks in government expenditure, education, including that of pupils with disabilities, has also been affected. Funding is very low and in many cases comes from donors such as the Inclusive Schooling Programme (INSPRO) and Education Sector Support Programme (ESSP) under the Ministry of Education.

Constraints on resources create significant social tensions, which may rebound on the government being seen

as failing to provide adequate funding. This is why inclusive education provision seems to offer the prospect of providing services to a range of learners including those with disabilities at a low cost. Instead of maintaining or establishing costly separate institutions, a wide range of learners can be educated in the same school, sharing resources, distributing the overhead costs amongst a large population and achieving economies of scale. Inclusive education, of course, is far from being cost-free.

### **Formal inclusion in Zambia**

Elizabeth Lamond, a missionary head-teacher, first initiated integrated education for the disabled in Mwense district of the Luapula Province of Zambia in 1966, although pupils might simply have been assimilated into the general classroom with minimal or without proper support. GRZ (1987) revealed that the Royal Commonwealth Society for the Blind supervised this development. In 1967, a considerable number of disabled pupils, particularly the visually impaired pupils from various primary schools were sent to ordinary schools, which had opened integrated units. In 1971, about nine visually impaired pupils passed their Cambridge Overseas School Certificate Examinations. As more pupils completed their primary education, more units were established in secondary schools. The Open Education Scheme under the auspices of the Royal Commonwealth Society for the Blind, was the only vital tool available at that time to help shape the educational welfare of pupils with disabilities. However, missionaries also played a remarkable role in development of educational programmes for the disabled. Today, integrated units have mushroomed in the country (Mwape & Tembo, 1999).

It was not until 1971 that special education became the responsibility of the Ministry of Education in Zambia. Influenced by the Western world, especially the U.K. and U.S.A., Zambia has historically tended to adhere to an international classification system to describe children with disabilities (Kasonde-Ng'andu, 2001). To this effect, such children are grouped according to a set of categories of disability, which have their origin in a 'medical' treatment model emphasising the impairment or disability.

For Zambia, the categories of disability that are recognised in the Educational Reform document (1977) are six: the mentally retarded, the deaf and hard of hearing, the blind and partially sighted, multiple handicaps, children needing remedial education, and the physically disabled. However, in practice four categories of disability are commonly used: mentally retarded, physically disabled, hearing impaired and visually impaired (Kasonde-Ng'andu, 2001).

Shortly after the Ministry of Education took over the responsibility for special education, a number of special schools and institutions were built. After a while, in response to the international pressure towards integration, the number of special units on ordinary school premises mushroomed especially in the 1980s. Even so it is estimated that only 2% of school-aged children with disabilities attended school (Nyambose, 1999).

Although the use of categories of disability is still quite common in practice in Zambia and elsewhere in the world, an appropriate system has been developed in response to the realisation that medically or clinically based categories are inadequate for determining the educational provision for disabled children. The

recommendations by the Warnock Report (1978) and subsequent Education Act (1981) reinforced this change in outlook in Zambia also. It is hence common place, even in Zambia, to use the terminology of 'special educational needs' (SEN) instead.

This description has the advantage of allowing for an analysis of the child's educational needs and subsequent placement in provision best able to meet the child's needs. In addition, the concept of SEN recognises that educational outcomes are dependent on the interaction between the child, the education provided in school, and the influences of the home and community. The teaching and the education offered in any particular school may be one determinant as to whether a child is in need of special educational provision. It is possible, therefore, that the same child might be identified as needing special education in one school but not in another (Evans, 1995).

The assumption behind the unit arrangement in Zambia is that children with and those without special educational needs will benefit from each other by socially mixing together during assembly and break time. Unfortunately, while this is a reasonable starting point in influencing the process to inclusion and formation of friendships among children with diverse abilities, there is evidence suggesting that children without disabilities tease and sometimes physically bully their counterparts with disabilities (Kasonde-Ng'andu, 1987).

Currently there are two main modalities of provision for special needs education in Zambia. The residential special school is the main feature, whilst integrated provision, via resource room treatment at both primary and secondary school levels, is rapidly increasing (GRZ,

1996). Resource room services for pupils with disabilities are integrated in regular classes and are considered as members of the class. The resource room model of service delivery was introduced because there were only two residential special schools at the secondary level for pupils with disabilities to attend after their primary school education. Hence, education for pupils with disabilities as perceived by GRZ (1996) is not a programme entirely different from that normally provided for able bodied pupils of the same age, but refers to those aspects which are unique or are additional to the regular education programme. Different arrangements exist, depending on the child's disability. Where the disabilities are severe, the child might spend most of the time in special class with a specialist teacher. However, many children are not members of special classes but receive occasional help outside the activities of the normal class. Thus, a child with speech impairment may spend one or two hours a week with a speech therapist, while a physically disabled child may be provided with physical exercises by the physiotherapist.

There are also special schools that cater for the specific educational needs of certain categories of children with disabilities. There are schools attached to hospitals for children who are hospitalised for long periods of time. The type of educational facility to be established depends on the nature and severity of the disability (GRZ, 1996). The main argument in favour of special schools is that they make it possible to concentrate personnel and resources needed for the children in such schools and to create for them a learning environment that responds positively to their learning needs. However, experience has also shown that

pupils with disabilities receiving their education in the general education classrooms perform well and adapt more easily to living in their home community. Their exclusion in residential special schools tends to create negative expectations of their ability and after school many have difficulty in returning home. For these reasons, some professionals indicate it is not desirable that pupils with disabilities should be treated as persons outside the mainstream of community life. As much as possible, they should be included into their home life community and schools, living a life that is comparable with that of other children of the same age. Hence, the preferred model of service delivery system used in Zambia entails a judicious balance of special education programmes and activities within the framework of a regular school. Where necessary, however, a pupil should be able to move from provision in an ordinary school to a special school, and vice versa, in accordance with needs. The following section examines policy, assessment and barriers to inclusion, which may have an influence to the process of inclusive education.

## **Policy Issues**

The first major educational policy pronouncements pertaining to special education in Zambia are contained in the Educational Reform (1977:23). This policy emphasised education as an instrument for personal and national development. In relation to Special Needs Education, the document states the following:

All handicapped children like any other children are entitled to education. They should receive basic and further education by full-time study as any other children. Further, since the handicapped children are a special

case, there should even be 'positive discrimination' in their favour in the provision of facilities and amenities for educational purposes.

(Education Reform, 1977:23)

While the 1977 policy had obvious positive intentions in favour of children with special educational needs, it largely reflected the medical model because its concern was more on the difference principle between the disabled and so-called 'any other children'. There was no mention as to whether their right to a full time education should be provided in ordinary schools. In other words, it was implied in the policy that the disabled children were to be treated differently because they were a special group.

The second major educational policy document was Focus on Learning (1992). It emanated from the World Declaration on Education for All that ensued from the World Conference on Education for All held in Jomtien, Thailand. The conference stressed the importance of access to educational opportunities:

Every person - child, youth and adult - shall be able to benefit from educational opportunities designed to meet their basic learning needs (Art. 1).

The 1992 policy therefore stressed the mobilisation of resources for the development of school education for all, including children with special educational needs.

The third major educational policy document has already been referred to above. Educating Our Future (1996) was the product of a lengthy and broadly based consultation process involving other line ministries, international donors, non governmental organisations (NGOs) and

universities. This policy document addresses the entire field of formal institutional education, paying particular attention to democratisation, decentralisation and productivity on the one hand, and curriculum relevance and diversification, efficient and cost-effective management, capacity building, cost sharing, and revitalised partnerships on the other. Flexibility, pluralism, responsiveness to needs, and the protection of quality are recurrent themes.

At a national level, some changes were taking place as a result of international influences. The third major educational policy document *Educating Our Future* was developed with the following Mission Statement:

The Ministry of Education is to guide the provision of education for all Zambians so that they are able to pursue knowledge and skills, manifest excellence in performance and moral uprightness, defend democratic ideals, and accept and value other persons on the basis of their personal worth and dignity, irrespective of gender, religion, ethnic origin, or any other discriminatory characteristics.

(GRZ, 1996: p. xi)

In developing this policy document a variety of methods were used to ensure the participation of key stakeholders, research, dissemination workshops and professional meetings (GRZ, 1996; Nyambose, 1999; Tembo, 2001). GRZ (1996 p.66) indicates that:

The Ministry of Education upholds the principle that every individual has a right to educational opportunity. This means that every individual child, regardless of personal circumstances or capacity, has a right of



access to, and participation in, the education system.

In relation to pupils with Special Educational Needs, the following policy statements are outlined:

The MOE will ensure equality of educational opportunity for children with special educational needs.

The MOE is committed to providing education of particularly good quality to pupils with special educational needs.

The MOE will improve and strengthen the supervision and management of special education across the country.

To achieve the above, the policy document mapped out the following strategies:

Working closely with the Ministry of Health, the MOE will decentralise services for identification, assessment and placement of children with special educational needs.

To the greatest extent possible, the MOE will integrate pupils with special educational needs into mainstream institutions and will provide them with necessary facilities. However, where need is established, the MOE will participate in the provision of new special schools for the severely impaired.

The MEO will co-operate with private, religious, community and philanthropic organisations in:

Meeting the special educational needs of exceptional children, and

Providing outreach services for children whose impairments prevent normal attendance in school

The MEO will enlarge and decentralise the special education inspectorate.

Planning for special education provision will be built into the Ministry's mainstream strategic planning, and in support of this the information system on special education and national needs in this area will be improved

(Educating Our Future, 1996 p. 69-70)

The third policy (Educating Our Future) document definitely marked an important advance compared to the other two. With reference to special needs education, it categorically endorsed the integration of children with special educational needs in mainstream education school life, which is in line with current thinking of professionals in terms educational service provision agreed upon at Jomtien 1990 and Salamanca, 1994. And by so doing, it sets the scene for the realisation of inclusive education in Zambia.

Unfortunately, despite all the aspirations described above, there lies a serious omission in these provisions. If there is anything to learn from the experience of the U.K. and U.S.A. as far as special education is concerned, it is the importance of putting in place legislation to support and guide emerging policies. The first step towards improving special education opportunities is the existence of clear legislation that allows appropriate policies to be drawn up and ensures the adoption and continuation of educational services for children and young people with disabilities. Appropriate legislation helps to clarify and formulate educational policies, specific rights and responsibilities, and provide a frame

of reference for the provision of education and the supply of services and resources. It is important that legislation should incorporate the new thinking on special needs and the measures required to put into effect this new thinking should be introduced gradually (Blanco and Duk, 1995).

In Zambia there is no legal instrument to protect children with disabilities in terms of education provision. Cap. 234 which is embodied in the Education Act (1966) is completely silent on this aspect of education. Cap. 551 which is the Handicapped Act is also silent, despite the fact that the education of handicapped children had been their jurisdiction from the early 1930s up to the time the Ministry of Education took over the education of handicapped children in 1971.

### **Identification and assessment**

Identification and assessment is extremely important as a means of ensuring that services and interventions are effectively executed and that they are targeted at all children who are rightfully the beneficiaries. A meaningful discussion of special education in any country has to necessarily touch on the subject of assessment. Unfortunately, in Zambia this has been a serious problem. The Educational Reform (1977:24) alluded to this precarious position as follows:

There are some handicapped children who have not been identified. This problem may continue unless definite measures are taken to set up machinery, which will operate on a permanent, and regular basis to identify such children whose handicaps might otherwise have gone undetected.

In the period leading up to 1981, identification and assessment of children with disabilities was done initially by the parents in the process of child-upbringing. Parents have a natural ability to notice when their child is developing well, based on the experience with other children of the same age. They, hence, usually did so and referred children to local health centres where they were further referred to the University Teaching Hospital (U.T.H) or Chainama Hills Hospital in Lusaka if necessary. The child would then be tested by the doctor who usually did not reveal the test results to the anxious parents. Instead, the doctor's test results with his/her recommendation of the type of school the child should be placed into, found their way to the inspectorate for implementation.

At other times the class teachers were the ones who noticed that there was 'something wrong' with the children they came into contact with. After the teachers suspected such pupils of showing signs of disability, they were referred to the inspectorate who in turn referred them to the hospital for confirmation of the present disability. The problem with this type of ascertainment and assessment was that some disabilities might go unnoticed especially in very young children. The fruits of early identification and assessment, which include early intervention, would consequently not be enjoyed. Also mild and moderate impairments or learning difficulties would be difficult to notice which might lead to deterioration in the level of the disability. Another problem with this type of identification and assessment was that parents were not considered as warranting a right to information, pertaining to their children, or to be consulted about the educational

provision being prescribed for their children (DNE, 1998a).

In Zambia where there is no statutory provision to safeguard parents' rights, to empower them to participate in the education of their children, such as in the case of the U.K. (parents Charter 1991) and U.S.A. (P.L. 94-142, 1975), professionals are gate keepers censoring entry into such forums (Kasonde-Ng'andu, 1999).

In an attempt to ameliorate this problem, but perhaps more in response to the International Year of the Disabled (1981), the government of Zambia, through the Ministry of Education, Health and Labour and Social Services in conjunction with the University of Zambia, embarked on a National Campaign to Reach Disabled Children (ZNCRDC). Its main objective was to ascertain the number of children with disabilities aged between 5 and 15 years. Apart from registering these children, an attempt was also made to raise people's awareness of the special needs of disabled children, to lay the foundation of nation-wide educational and health services and to supply technical aids and prosthetic devices to as many children and their families as possible.

The ZNCRDC marked the first remarkable signs that the challenge of special needs education was taken up by the government of Zambia. A substantial number of children with disabilities were reached and registered. The relatively positive response by the public was due to the initial sensitisation efforts. Approximately 7000 children in the 5-15 year age group were found to be disabled. Of course, an exercise of this nature, which depends on the parents bringing the children in question to the centres, is not likely to be perfect. Some parents therefore, were not forthcoming indicating the need for

more comprehensive and reliable measures. Also, out of 2 843 designated centres of registration, 930 were not visited by the District Ascertainment Officers (DAOs).

Although assessment services are limited in Zambia, it is necessary to mention that as well as the U.T.H and Chainama Hills Hospital mentioned above, there is now an Assessment Centre at the University of Zambia funded by Niilo Maki Institute, Finland. It was set up in 1996 soon after the Department of Educational Psychology, Sociology and Special Education introduced the Bachelor of Special Education degree programme. The main idea behind the creation of the assessment centre was to have a place in the University where students could learn in very practical atmosphere neuropsychological assessment procedures and rehabilitation techniques. Further, since there were no systematic child psychological services in Zambia at that particular time it was imperative that such a service be provided immediately to the nation.

One of the specific functions of the assessment centre is to carry out neuropsychological assessment of learning and developmental disorders. The assessment of neuropsychological problems is important because it provides information underlying subtle deficiencies in the central nervous system that interfere with learning in pre-school and school-aged children. Thus it helps in the understanding of cognitive, behavioural, and educational problems such as dyslexia (reading disability), writing problems, mathematical disabilities, attention problems, language impairments, and motor co-ordination problems. Although the neuropsychological assessment may be good in some way, it reflects a medical model.

The main target group for the UNZA Assessment Centre are pre-school children and school-age children between ages 3 and 17 years who, despite normal intellectual ability face specific problems in learning as a result of central nervous system dysfunction. All the children that are referred to the centre are assessed at no cost. Despite the availability of this service, the country needs more centres, especially in rural areas.

The assessment is today seen to be educationally oriented, and detailed observations are used to determine the strengths and weakness of the learner (Ogilvy, 1994). This is an appropriate departure towards teaching and meeting the needs of all pupils in a general education classroom.

## **Barriers to inclusion in Zambia**

The barriers to inclusive schooling may be related to education and some to the socio-economic situation of the community. UNESCO (1999) lists some of the barriers to inclusive education as follows:

- Lack of a clear understanding of inclusion, which poses challenges in all education systems. Sometimes inclusion is seen as location integration of special classes in mainstream schools, which hampers efforts for real inclusion and improvements throughout the education system;
- Attitudes of decision-makers, as well as lack of policies and support from the government may discourage initiatives towards inclusive education at all levels,
- Teachers' low salaries might not motivate them to get involved in a development process that requires more work and more time (p. 21).

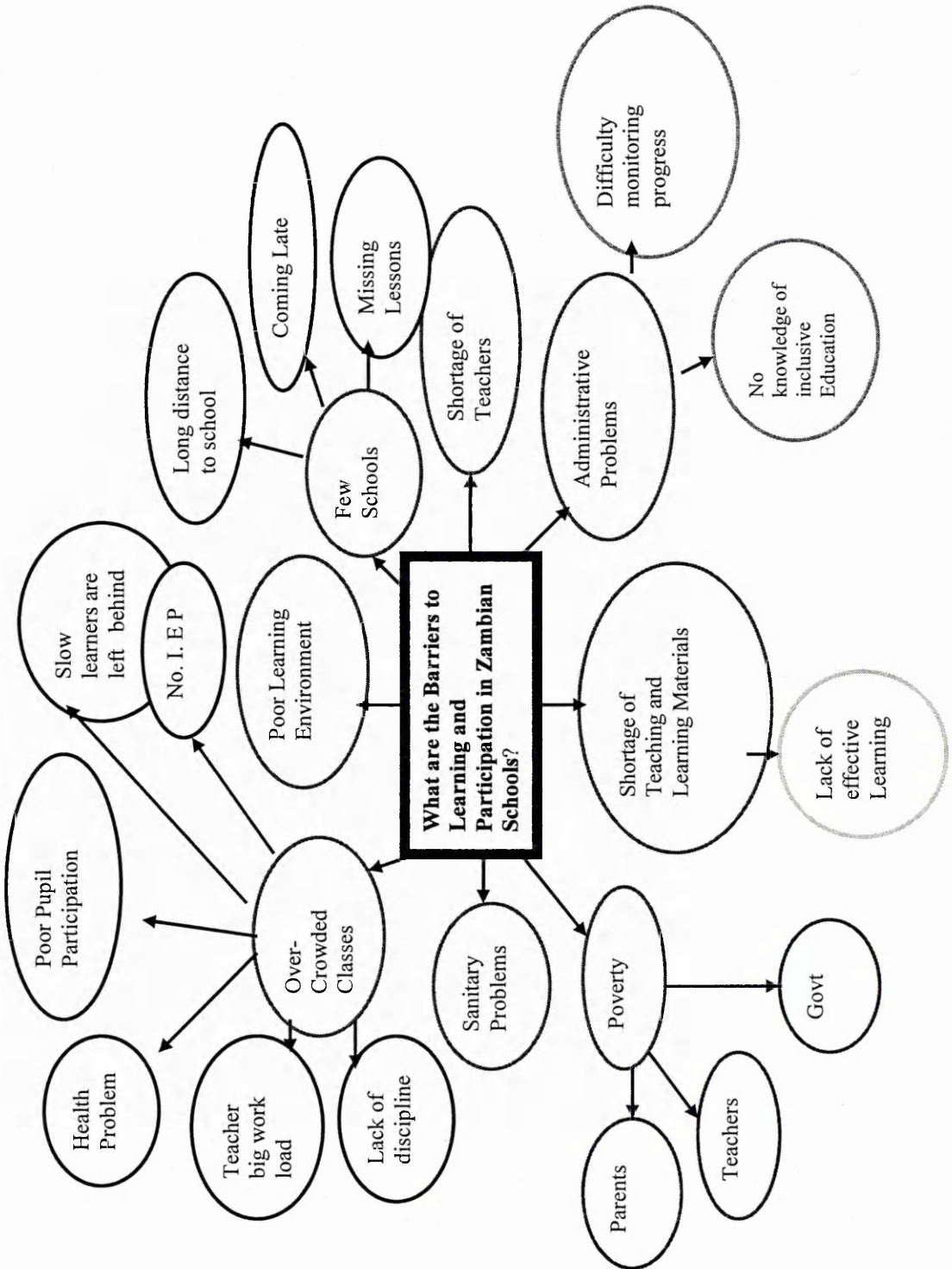
In Zambia some barriers to inclusion are the shortage of teaching/learning materials, inadequate access of physical environment, shortage of teachers, few schools, poor learning environment, administrative problems, teachers lacking a clear understanding of inclusion, poverty, over-crowded classes and sanitary problems. Figure 1 provides a summary.

Reflecting on practical experiences with regard to inclusion in Zambia, I would observe that while the western studies seem to take for granted that inclusion is globally practicable, it is safe to suggest that differences in location, culture, norms, beliefs and the general lack of resources in Zambia and other developing countries, limit the universality displayed in the western literature. Kisanji (1999) argues that the principles of universality, relevance, functionality and community localisation are essential for a successful inclusive education system. For example, some of the teaching approaches and methods considered to facilitate effective learning in schools today are a natural part of African indigenous education (Kisanji, 1999). Here the researcher has in mind co-operative and collaborative learning and child-to-child learning opportunities. However, due to our veneration of ideas and systems from outside, perhaps because of our history, we have all along ignored these practices in our communities, only for research elsewhere to establish their effectiveness (UNESCO, 1993; Carmen, 1996). However, the ideas contained in this literature are exceedingly useful for application in an inclusive manner to suit local conditions. There are a number of obstacles affecting Zambia in meeting the learning needs of all pupils including those with disabilities and other vulnerable groups. Some of the barriers include the general lack of



trained teachers, collaboration and consultation services, learning and teaching resources un-adapted physical infrastructures, high pupil/teacher ratios and long distances covered by pupils with disabilities to get to the nearest school. I generated a diagram summarising this.

Figure 1: Barriers to Inclusive Schooling in Zambia.



Barriers to successful inclusion are negative attitudes of teachers towards pupils with disabilities such as 'I am not trained to teach pupils with disabilities', or 'this is the work of special education teachers who are paid extra money for teaching such pupils' (Nyambose, 1999). Further Nyambose (1999) asserts that head-teachers of schools and parents may also share these negative attitudes toward the inclusion of pupils with disabilities into general education classrooms. Parents and members of the Parent Teachers Association (PTA) often say that they do not have adequate funds to make the school accessible to disabled pupils (Katwishi, 1995). Mwape & Tembo (1999) argue that they claim that the school was built for non-disabled pupils. Also the government has not conducted sensitisation workshops for parents, teachers and non-disabled pupils on the needs of pupils with disabilities before their inclusion in general education classrooms. The absence of such orientation has also made pupils with disabilities embarrassed to learn side by side with their peers in general education classrooms because they are considered as strangers because they look different. As a result of such attitudes by non-disabled pupils, Wiener and Harris (1997) have asserted that pupils with disabilities are more likely to be neglected and rejected by and less likely to be popular than are non-disabled pupils.

### **Attitudes to inclusion in Zambia**

Much of the published work on attitudes is about the US, UK and other European countries. As such attitudes in Zambia may be different because of the different context.

Mumba (1996) argues that the quality of education is deteriorating in Zambia and society as a whole is concerned about this trend. Further he says that teacher-training colleges emphasise the importance of the relationship between teachers and pupils, but innovative ideas discussed during training are rarely put into practice. Most

experienced teachers, who work in isolation from fellow teachers, continue to teach in the same way they did when they first qualified decades before. Undemocratic and authoritarian teaching practices prevent innovation and African culture reinforces authoritarian relationships between adults and children.

Despite all the problems in Zambia in relation to such authoritarian teaching practice, poverty and so on, there are still examples of schools in Zambia where staff are very positive about inclusion and have changed their pedagogical practices to accommodate this. For example, teachers in Kabale primary school in Mpika district, some 600 kilometres from the capital Lusaka, have radically changed their style of teaching (EENET, 2001). This has paved the way incidentally for the inclusion of children with learning difficulties. When Kabale school opened in 1966 it had 40 children and one teacher. Today it has almost 2000 children and 40 teachers. The school is a resource centre for the Child-to-Child programme. The staff is encouraged by the administration to promote children's participation in their own learning and the equal participation of pupils, parents and teachers in education. The strategies, which have been used to democratise classroom practice, are as follows:

- Introducing children to their rights and responsibilities;
- Co-operative group learning and problem-solving;
- Pupils are encouraged to question traditional sources of knowledge;
- Evaluation of the learning process by both pupils and teachers;
- Pupils are involved in decision-making;
- A strong emphasis on gender equality; and

- Parents participate in their children's learning (Ainscow, 1995, Hanbury, 1995; Mumba, 1996; Hawwash & Maas, 1996; Miles, 2000).

The combination of these approaches has encouraged ownership of the school by the community, an essential part of the inclusive process, as inclusive classrooms are unlikely to work in isolation from the community. This approach is an element of positive attitudes towards the inclusion of all pupils including those with disabilities.

As all these changes were being introduced, the Ministry of Education, with donor support, arranged for a small unit for children with learning disabilities to be built at Kabale School, without any prior consultation with the staff. They specified that there would be a specialised teacher who would teach five children in the unit. Meanwhile the Child-to-Child programme had identified 30 children with learning disabilities who had been excluded from school. There followed a difficult period of negotiation, but the school succeeded in taking in all 30 children. The co-operative methods of teaching and learning and child-to-child methodology enabled the children with learning difficulties to be included with their peers (Helender, 1993; Hawes & Scotchmer, 1993; Hanbury, 1995; Hawwash & Maas, 1996). Gradually the unit has been transformed into a resource centre, which is used by all teachers. The ideas developed at Kabale School have been shared with 17 schools in the district and regular meetings are held between the teachers to share experiences. Kabale School's success in raising academic standards, attendance rates and in including children with learning disabilities has been studied by several universities, both in Zambia, United Kingdom and the USA. According to Stubbs (1997) the following lessons were learnt from the study:

- A comprehensive situation analysis should be carried out prior to implementation;
- Local resources and initiatives should be identified and built on;
- Success does not depend upon a large budget or small class sizes, but on the careful and planned use of existing resources;
- A pilot study should be chosen which provides a replicable model;
- Training should be on-going, provided in short courses and should preferably take place in schools;
- School improvement is necessary, not optional;
- Programmes should aim to benefit all children, not only disabled children;
- Specialist support should be located at district and national levels, and not within schools;
- A whole school approach is essential and good leadership is required;
- The pace of development should be slow to enable those involved to feel comfortable with the change; and
- Ownership should be shared between schools, families and communities.

The lessons learnt may come about as a result of positive attitudes towards education for all.

More evidence of teacher attitudes in Zambia comes from a study conducted by the Special Education Inspectorate wing of the Ministry of Education in Kalulushi district with urban, peri-urban and rural settings in the Copperbelt province of Zambia. Attitudes of both general and special education teachers were assessed to determine their

willingness to include pupils with disabilities in their general education classrooms (Mandona, 1997). The survey was conducted in ten basic schools that practice inclusive schooling. The results of this survey showed the difficulties in assessing attitudes for inclusion of pupils with disabilities in general education classrooms as these cannot be adequately measured through administering a questionnaire (GRZ 1997) However, this study also showed both positive and negative attitudes towards the inclusion of pupils with disabilities in general education classrooms by both general and special educational teachers.

Furthermore, Mandona's (1997) survey revealed that different teachers held different attitudes about their work, their pupils and the delivery of educational services to pupils with disabilities. Differences in culture, linguistic diversity where a classroom could have twenty or more dialects spoken by pupils, large classes, scanty and inadequate resources, lack of staff development programmes and modest salaries for teachers were all seen by the teachers as barriers to effective inclusion of pupils with disabilities into general education classrooms. These findings were in line with Ajzen's (1980; 1988) theory that since people have different experiences, they form different beliefs about similar behaviours. Beliefs may be reasonable or unreasonable, true or untrue. These beliefs, however, can influence attitudes and perceptions, which in turn determine behaviour.

Research shows Zambian teachers feel they have insufficient resources, skills and training necessary for inclusion, compared to their counterparts in the west. Their attitudes and beliefs toward inclusion of pupils with disabilities vary considerably with the type and severity of the disability (Katwishi, 1995).

General education teachers considered teaching pupils with learning disabilities beyond their remit because they were involved in academic production unit classes which give them more income than including pupils with disabilities (Nyambose, 1997). Special education teachers consider themselves as more knowledgeable, caring and skilled. The extra allowance they receive seems to be more of an attraction for some general education teachers to join special education than their actual readiness to individualise programmes for special education classes. These classes have fewer pupils, a more flexible schedule, and command high teacher salaries (Nyambose, 1997).

## **Summary**

Inclusive education has become a key component of school reform in Zambia, whose general aim of inclusive education is to create schools where discrimination will be reduced if not eliminated. Zambia has started the process towards inclusion. This is reflected in the literature reviewed earlier on in this section, that there are children with disabilities attending general education schools and classes. Although their presence in the schools or classes does not necessarily mean they are effectively included with appropriate support. The situation indicates that it is possible to achieve inclusive education.

To conclude this section one would say that the move towards inclusion has begun in Zambia, although it is a long process and development because it has to do with changing attitudes of key players involved in implementation.



## **Chapter 4    Research design and methodology**

### **Introduction**

Different research questions require different research strategies. The strategies employed, the approach, or the particular research tool involved, are reflected in the research design. A research design refers to a plan, strategy, model, style, paradigm, blueprint, or guide for data collection and interpretation – a set of rules that enable the investigator to conceptualise and observe the problem under study (Miller, 1991). A research design tells us what observations to make, how to make them, and how to analyse them.

Research is about knowledge creation. In the process of researching, researchers are in a position to decide which methodology is to be selected, which questions are to be asked, and in which direction solutions are to be found (Miles, 1990; Miller, 1991). The nature of the research questions posed determines the type of answer that can be obtained (Alasuutari, 1995), which means that the research topic must lead the methodology, and not the opposite (Hegarty and Evans, 1985). In this study, I describe my research design as a reflexive process where lessons learned in the pilot are applied to the main study. The research, utilises both quantitative and qualitative approaches appropriate for researching attitudes of teachers (Skrtic, 1988; Patton, 1990; Robson, 1993; Yin, 1994) facing real issues in schools.

This chapter comprises the following sub-sections:

- Research Design

- Main Study Instruments

- Pilot Study

- Sampling Techniques

Woodlands 'A' Basic School

Mwashi Basic School

## **Research design**

The methodology used in this research takes into consideration the nature of the study as well as the intervening factors that could affect the manner of data collection and data analysis. The usual constraints of cost, time and logistics were also taken into account. The design for this study included two stages: a pilot in which the research instruments were tested and subsequently modified, and a main study. It involved eliciting data on teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education through the use of questionnaires and personal interviews.

A design using both quantitative and qualitative approaches was appropriate to obtain an in depth understanding of the problem under study. To determine what teachers generally felt about the place of inclusive education in schools could more appropriately be ascertained using the quantitative approach. Teachers' individual attitudes towards inclusive education were studied using the qualitative approach.

In order for me to gain a deeper insight into the various linked themes of this investigation and an understanding of attitudes of teachers, it was considered essential that the techniques to be selected should be appropriate to specific situations and therefore likely to enable me to achieve in-depth, meaningful, and comprehensive assessment. It is for these reasons that I decided to employ more than just the quantitative experimental methods, which are widely accepted as necessary by scientifically trained researchers and academics. Human beings cannot easily be subjected to the strict laboratory experimental conditions we could use with physical and material phenomena. A purely quantitative experimental design study may not sufficiently bring out

what one really needs to know regarding attitudes and preferences of the teachers to be observed and questioned for this particular investigation.

In my opinion, the realities of the experiences of another human being, and how that person feels and thinks about those experiences, can only be revealed by that person, as other people who claim to know what that person feels and knows must largely be taken as mere speculation. We must acknowledge that one can never 'know', in the same sense that one 'knows' one's own thoughts and feelings, what another person's experience is 'really' like. I wanted to get as close to that 'knowing' as possible, and, in order to do so, opted to supplement a questionnaire by utilising interviews which have become commonplace in many educational research projects over the last forty or so years (Yin, 1993: 1994). Preference for this method is not because it is simple - it is not - neither does it imply that I am choosing the 'softer' method of doing research, but rather that this method seems to offer many more possibilities by virtue of its flexibility. It has also been widely used in educational research (Patton, 1999). An interview approach seems more appropriate to supplement a questionnaire and provide the desired insight as it is ultimately concerned with description and analysis of data, rather than with prediction and measurement (Miller, 1991).

### *Questionnaires*

In order to gauge teachers' attitudes regarding the inclusion of pupils with disabilities, questionnaires exploring the respondents' views on the suitability of inclusive education were administered.

Questionnaires can be group administered, self-administered, or mailed to a distant place. (Sieber, 1992). The purpose for which a questionnaire is used can range from exploring-

probing type of research to highly structured lab experiments (Miller, 1991). Hedrick et al (1992) and Maxwell (1996) indicate that a questionnaire can be open-ended or have closed style questions.

In an open-ended question format, one advantage is that a respondent is not confined to a pre-arranged response category that forces one to agree or disagree such as 'yes' or 'no' (Miller, 1991). The respondent has an opportunity to openly express what he/she believes, feels, or to give comments (Belson, 1981; Herbert, 1990; Hedrick et al, 1992; deVaus, 1996). One disadvantage of this format of questionnaire is that it needs careful wording to present a standardised question to all respondents. Also at times open-ended questionnaires may prove difficult to analyse (Sieber, 1992; Marshall & Rossman, 1995).

In a closed question style, an investigator often supplies the respondents with a category format which allows the respondent to answer items by checking categories, or to agree or disagree, such as 'yes' or 'no' (Lock, 1993). One advantage of the closed question style is that it is easy to score, code and tabulate, but difficult to prepare (Sieber, 1992; Hedrick et al., 1993; deVaus, 1996).

Each question format has distinct advantages and disadvantages. We are advised that for undertaking research (Herbert, 1990; Sieber, 1992) in which feelings, attitudes, beliefs, or behaviour on some concern that is well understood and would have a common frame of reference to respondents, closed-style questions can be an appropriate format (Lock, 1993; deVaus, 1996).

## *Interviews*

It has been argued that interviews are one of the most important sources of information for social research (Yin, 1994). Walker (1985 p.91) defines interviews as 'a method or

a group of techniques specific to the social and human science'. Interviewing provides a way of generating empirical data about the social world by asking people to talk about their lives. They can give an added more rounded vision for the research and help to get a feel for, and to support the data obtained from other instruments. Similarly, Seideman (1991) states that the purpose of interviews is not only to get answers or to test hypotheses, or even to evaluate, but rather is indicative of an interest in understanding people's experiences and the meaning they attach to those experiences. Dexter (1970) reckons that interviews provide access to the context of a situation and makes the researcher reach deeper meanings about the reality being studied. Besides, they are regularly used to supplement other research methods (Whyte, 1984; Powney & Watts, 1987; Gubrium & Holstein, 1997).

On the other hand, Hammersley & Atkinson (1983) stress that the expressive power of interview language provides the most important resource in its capacity to represent descriptions, explanations and evaluations of an almost infinite variety about any aspect of the world. Holstein (1993) argues that qualitative research interviews are not restricted to a fixed set of questions, and usually lie between structured and unstructured techniques, depending on the design, content, and techniques involved in collecting appropriate information.

The characteristics of an unstructured interviewing style corresponds to the open-ended interviewing style (Alasuutari, 1995). Bell (1994) considers that this kind of interview 'aims to produce a wealth of valuable data', yet requires a great deal of experience to control and a great deal of time for analysis. However, more and more unstructured interviews are being used for in-depth inquiry (Yin, 1993).

Miller & Glasser (1997) and Denzin & Lincoln (1998) classify interview styles into two categories: 'respondent interview and informant interview'. Powney & Watts (1987) argue that the main characteristics of the respondent style of interviewing is predominant tightly structured by a set of questions which are predetermined and asked during the interviewing process. Informant interviewing style, on the other hand, aims to gain insights into the perception of a particular person (s) within the situation. This style seems to correspond to unstructured interviews, which are conducted in order to penetrate into the 'inside' of the interviewee in an attempt to generate in-depth ideas. One of the limitations of unstructured interviews is that bias might creep into them. Responding to this view, DeVault (1996), and Miller (1996) all point out that interviewers are human beings and not machines and their manner might have an affect on the respondents. On the other hand, focused or tightly structured interviews might be mechanical in nature, and the interviewer may miss important parameters during the process.

Miller (1996) says, 'in semi-structured interviews the interviewer becomes flexible in terms of the order in which the topics are considered'. The interviewee also is led to develop ideas and speak more widely on the issues raised by the researcher (Descombe, 1998). The researcher is open-ended and the interviewee is able to elaborate points of interest.

## **Research Instruments**

### *Research instruments and data collection*

The data collection instruments were developed following a review of international literature on the inclusion of pupils with disabilities, and attitudes of teachers both in general as well as special education.

In compiling the list of items for the pilot questionnaire I drew on questionnaires from existing research about attitudes as they related to issues important to inclusion (see references in Table 1 below).

The questionnaire was self-administered. I allowed respondents to freely express their opinions at the end of the questionnaire and ensured anonymity as names were not asked for. It provided information about teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education although questions were closed-ended. As earlier indicated, the questionnaire was supplemented by interviews, partly in order to cross check answers teachers gave in the questionnaire. Questions in the questionnaire and interviews were linked for this purpose.

To allow for the collection of as much relevant information as possible the interviews were not tightly structured.

Therefore, relevant issues which were not included in the interview schedule but arose during the process of conducting personal interview were explored and noted down as impromptu supplementary responses. This was in line with the flexible nature of a qualitative research paradigm (Cohen & Manion, 1992). Follow-up probing questions were also asked, for elaboration or in order to seek clarification.

The use of appropriate methods can be spoiled by the researcher's failure to record data accurately (Marshall & Rossman, 1995). In order to avoid this problem, I used an audio-cassette player to record all interviews proceedings. This information was later transcribed and filed according to interviewee number and school.

### *The questionnaire*

The questionnaire for both the pilot and main study had two parts. In the pilot the first part had 10 demographic information items. Part two had 36 closed-ended items, with

issues salient to inclusion as indicated in the literature and grouped into the following four themes: How Education should be, Attitudes to disability and pupils' rights, Teaching experience and How education is. A Likert scale was used in the questionnaire. Participants were asked to circle the number which they felt best described their understanding of the inclusive education by using the scale 1 to 5 (1 for strongly disagree, 2 for disagree, 3 for neutral, 4 for agree and 5 for strongly agree).

Tables 1 and 2 note the items used in the questionnaire together with the literature sources on which I drew to compile the list. Some items from these studies were taken unmodified, such as 1 (School setting), 2 (Present position), 3 (Gender) and 6 (Years of teaching experience) in part one of the demographic information on the questionnaire, and statements 1, 2, 4, 6, 7, 10 and 12 in section one of part two. Similarly, statements 1, 2, 3, 4, 7 and 10 in section two of part two, all items in section three and items 4 and 5 in section four of part two were replicated unmodified. Those items not mentioned above were modified to suit the Zambian situation and culture by splitting and adding new questions and options.

**Table 1: Items replicated unmodified**

ITEM	SOURCE (S)
Gender	McFerrin (1987) & Galis (1994)
General education should be available to all children	Galis (1994) & Arrington (1992)
All pupils should be educated in the general education Classrooms to the extent possible	Arrington (1992) & Galis (1994)
Our school has its own policy regarding meeting the needs of all pupils	Arrington (1992) & Millar (1996)
All academic expectations should be the same in an inclusive setting	Arrington (1992) & Galis (1994)
Placing pupils with disabilities in the general education classrooms mean quality education for all	McFerrin (1997) & Arrington (1992)
Participation of all pupils should be a priority in an inclusive setting.	Galis (1994) & Millar 1996)



Successful inclusion depends entirely on the co-operation of support teachers. McAneny (1992) & Arrington (1992)

**Table 2: Items replicated with modification**

<b>ITEM</b>	<b>SOURCE (S)</b>
School setting	McFerrin (1987) & Galis (1994)
Present position	Arrington (1992) & Galis (1994)
Highest Education Attained	Arrington (1992) & Galis (1994)
Age	Ferley (1991) Galis (1994), & Millar (1996)
Years of teaching Experience	Kasonde-Ng'andu & Moberg (2001)
Are you currently teaching children in an inclusive setting?	Kasonde-Ng'andu & Moberg (2001)
If yes, years of teaching experience in an inclusive setting	Kasonde-Ng'andu & Moberg (2001)
My knowledge of Inclusive Education is through	Kasonde-Ngandu & Moberg (2001)
Pupil/teacher ratio in my current school	Ferley (1991) & Millar (1996)
Our school has a comprehensive staff development programme for all teachers	Millar (1996)
Ordinary school teachers should have the primary responsibility for the education of all pupils including those with disabilities in their classrooms	Galis (1994)
Only teachers with specialised training are able to effectively teach all pupils in an inclusive setting	Kasonde-Ng'andu & Moberg (2001)
Class-size should be reduced to effectively promote inclusion of pupils with disabilities in the general education classrooms	Galis (1994); Millar (1996) & Kasonde-Ng'andu & Moberg (2001)
Disabled children are a bad omen to the family and community as a whole	Kasonde-Ng'andu & Moberg (2001)
Education is a fundamental right for all children including those with disabilities	McAneny (1992) & Millar (1996)
Children with disabilities are the same as non-disabled peers	McFerrin (1987) & Kasonde-Ng'andu & Moberg (2001)
Physically/intellectually/visually/hearing pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms	Ferley (1991) & McAneny (1992)
I have experience with physically/intellectually/visually/hearing impaired pupils in the general education classrooms	Galis (1994); Millar (1996)
I have experience with pupils with disabilities in segregated units	Kasonde-Ng'andu & Moberg (2001)
In our school all pupils engage in similar activities at the same time	Ferley (1991)
In our school all pupils receive the aid	Galis (1994)

of the teacher as needed and are provided with immediate positive feedback within the general education classroom setting	
In our school all pupils are made to feel welcome and seen as participating members of the general education classroom environment	McFerrin (1987) & McAneny (1992)
In our school all pupils' successes are celebrated equally	Galis (1994); Millar (1996)
In our school all pupils assist each other in the process of learning	Ferley (1991); Galis (1994) & Millar (1996)
I am now or have been successful in meeting diverse needs in the general education classrooms	Millar (1996)
In our school teachers are provided with adequate time to plan together for the benefit of all pupils	Ferley (1991) & McAneny (1992)
In our school the staff is able to collaborate on educational issues	McAneny (1992) & Millar (1996)
Our school has adequate teaching/learning resources to meet the needs of all pupils	Galis (1994) & Kasonde-Ng'andu & Moberg (2001)
Improved salaries and condition of service for teachers and other support staff would be an effective strategy for promoting inclusive education	Ferley (1991), McAneny (1992) Galis (1994), Kasonde-Ng'andu & Moberg (2001)
In our school all teachers have opportunity to go for extra training to update themselves with the recent trends, development and practice in education	McAneny (1992; Galis (1994); Millar (1996)

These source studies were drawn upon because they have items tailored to tease out teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education particularly with regard to including children with disabilities in general education classrooms.

The questionnaire in its pilot and final forms is attached as appendix 1.

Semi-structured interview schedules were used to provide access to the context of the situation and to reach deeper meanings about the reality being studied (Gubrium & Holstein 1997; Denzin & Lincoln 1998). The interview schedule included questions related to three main areas (1) Experience (2) Attitudes to the concept of inclusion and (3) factors that may promote inclusive schooling.

Guided by the literature reviewed and questionnaire, the questions were designed for interview. The interview schedule is included as appendix 2.

## *Triangulation*

Triangulation in data collection, involving the use of two or more methods in the study, can help explain more fully the richness and complexity of data (Silverman, 1997). This can be done by studying practices from more than one angle using multiple methods for data collection, and each method can reveal different aspects of empirical facts within the same site (Cohen & Manion, 1992; Yin, 1993).

This use of combined methods of data collection was chosen because it overcomes the weaknesses associated with individual methods (Robson, 1993), and helps to give a more detailed picture of the situation under study (Cohen & Manion, 1992). It also helps to validate accounts and increases chances of accuracy, and works a strong bond between these methods (Gubrium, 1992) and helps to address a broader range of attitudes and other issues related to the development of schools in relation to inclusive practices.

## **Pilot study**

Data collection in the main study was preceded by a pilot study which was conducted in the UK from July to August, 2002. Both the questionnaire and the open-ended interview guide were tested through administration to 23 respondents at the Manchester and Newcastle upon Tyne Universities. This exercise helped me to determine the usefulness and reliability of the closed-ended questionnaire which had been set (Marshall & Rossman, 1995). It also gave me an opportunity to remove ambiguities and inadequate wording from the questionnaire.

The pilot study was conducted at Manchester and Newcastle upon Tyne Universities in the UK with a similar sample to the one eventually studied in Zambia. At the completion of the pilot study, the following questions were asked:

- (1) Were the questions in the questionnaire clear?

(2) Did you encounter difficulties filling in the questionnaire?

(3) Did you come across words that you did not understand in the questionnaire?

Feedback was sought on the difficulty of the questionnaire items, its comprehensiveness and clarity. Seventy per cent of the respondents indicated that the questionnaire and interview schedule questions were clear and friendly. Thirty per cent of the respondents suggested refinement of some items, which were then made for the main study, thus removing ambiguities.

## **Sampling techniques**

Literature on sampling strategies and techniques is rich (Guba & Lincoln, 1981; Hammersley & Atkinson, 1983; Hammersley, 1984; Patton, 1990; Burgess, 1992). The strategies and techniques range from simple random, systematic sample, stratified sampling, cluster sampling, stage sampling, convenience sampling, quota sampling, purposive sampling, dimensional sampling, snowball sampling, judgement or opportunistic, and theoretical sampling (Denscombe, 1998).

In this study, both purposive and convenience sampling techniques guided the research during fieldwork. In the pilot study, for pragmatic reasons of time and the place where I happened to be, I used convenience sampling. In the main study, sampling was purposive. Denscombe (1998) indicates that with purposive sampling, the sample is 'hand picked' for the research, and is based on institutions where the researcher already knows about the specific people and events (p. 15). He further reveals that in this type of sample, the researcher deliberately selects its subjects because they are seen as likely to produce valuable data. One advantage of purposive sampling is that it allows the

investigator to concentrate on those people and events which there were good reasons for believing would generate valuable data for the research.

In support of purposive sampling, Borg & Gall (1989) and Cohen & Manion (1992) argue that this strategy can benefit the research because some of the selected key informants, who have special knowledge and perception that are not otherwise available to other staff members, can add richness for the research. This selection, in a way possibly allowing key informants to reconstruct the past, interpret the present, and predict the future, may prove to be of great value.

This technique was applied during the main study, to build on my experience gained during the pilot study, as a decision to select key informants was evolved while carrying on the research. Certain facts that emerged in the schools during the fieldwork might be of central importance and interest to the research.

A similar sampling procedure was administered when selecting teachers for interviews in the sampled schools. This strategy helped to provide an entire range of teachers; in other words, adequate coverage for the population because the aim was to collect data and have as many perspectives and feedback from the population in the schools as possible.

### *Population Sample*

#### **a) Pilot study**

##### **Questionnaire sample**

The pilot study population for the questionnaire comprised various African communities because that was the only sample which was readily available at the time of the study. The primary target population was Zambian. Since it was a small-scale pilot the sample size was small, comprising

participants drawn from five African countries although Zambia contributed the major proportion. A convenience sampling technique was therefore used.

The pilot study was based largely in the UK rather than Zambia, in the Universities of Manchester and Newcastle upon Tyne where I had studied and made contacts who acted as research assistants. The final questionnaire sample for the pilot comprised 23, that is, 5 head-teachers, 2 deputy head-teachers, 3 Senior teachers, 9 teachers, 2 teacher trainers, 1 researcher and 1 Senior Inspector of Schools. Out of the 23 participants, 16 were males and 7 females. The number of female respondents was unequal to that of male participants owing to the convenience sampling approach.

At the University of Manchester, three students were taking inclusive education programmes, the other two were pursuing educational management courses while one was studying an intervention programme for disruptive children. Seven of the teachers came to Manchester from Zambia under Manchester-Zambia Health School project. At the University of Newcastle upon Tyne four students were undertaking educational management courses; three Special Education (thinking skills), one was studying the importance of museums to countries south of the equator while two came for Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFOL).

**Table 1: Distribution of questionnaire copies to respondents from whom data was collected.**

University	No. of quest. mailed	No. returned	Returned rate
Manchester	14	13	93%
Newcastle upon Tyne	11	10	91%
<b>Totals</b>	<b>25</b>	<b>23</b>	<b>92%</b>

Out of the 25 copies of the questionnaire mailed to the 2 Universities, 23 were returned representing a return rate of

92%. The sampled respondents came from the following countries.

**Table 2: Number of respondents from respective African Countries.**

Country	No. of respondents	Percentage (%)
Zambia	13	57%
Malawi	3	13%
Zimbabwe	3	13%
Botswana	3	13%
Swaziland	1	4%
<b>Totals</b>	<b>23</b>	<b>100%</b>

#### **Interview sample**

The sampling procedure for the interview sample could be considered 'convenience'. In England, the British Education Research Association (BERA) called for an International Conference in the City of Exeter. There was a good balance of people from the teaching profession who came to attend and present papers. During the conference I approached five people giving papers in the same symposium as I was to be interviewed. All five willingly agreed to support me with my studies. Similarly, two days after my arrival in Zambia, the Ministry of Education called for a workshop on Inclusive Education at ZAMISE where I had been a lecturer. The workshop was attended by 18 teachers, 2 Inspectors of Schools and 5 Lecturers in the Province. Five agreed to be interviewed.

The opportunistic strategy was successful in obtaining a sample of interviewees with a wide range of teaching experience, age, and academic qualifications. In the English sample 60% were female, and 40% male. 60% had Masters Degrees and were studying for PhD qualifications and 40% had Masters Degrees. With the Zambian sample, 20% had PhD qualification, 40% with BA with Education Degrees and 40%

non-graduate and mostly very experienced. 60% who participated in the interview were female and 40% male.

The age of the interviewees ranged from 24 to 62 years. Some were beginning teachers while others were on the verge of retirement like those in Zambia. For example the 20% with PhD degrees in Zambia had retired from teaching and joined the University of Zambia to lecture in special education. The distribution of respondents according to their teaching experience was as follows:

**The English Sample:**

6-10 years: 4

10 - 15 years: 1

**The Zambian Sample:**

10-15 years: 2

16-20 years: 2

21- 37 years: 1

The total number of interviewees involved in this pilot study was 13, five from England and five from Zambia.

**The English sample:**

- One teacher who at one time was a SENCO before becoming a Research Assistant at the Open University,
- One teacher and lecturer in one of the educational colleges working on part-time basis,
- One teacher of visually impaired pupils who is a full-time research student at Leeds University and
- Two general education teachers.

**The Zambian sample was as follows:**

- One Inspector of schools in-charge of Special Education Unit,



- Two Lecturers in Special Education. (1 from the University of Zambia (UNZA)' and the other from the Zambia Institute of Special Education (ZAMISE),
- Two general education teachers from St. Patrick's school.

It was also possible to trace their professional training. 30% said their coursework involved the education of children with disabilities, while 50% indicated having children with disabilities in their classes, and 20% said they had not had such children, but felt that they are our children and society should take responsibility of their education.

As a result of the pilot study and testing of the instruments, modifications were made to both questionnaire and interview schedule.

## **Justification of sample**

### **a) *Pilot study***

There are many reasons why the convenience sample for the questionnaire, comprising Africans who were studying in England was appropriate for the study. Firstly, the entire sample came from the teaching fraternity in Africa, whose educational systems are prototypes of the British system, having been colonies of the latter. Secondly, Zambia, Malawi and Zimbabwe are neighbours whose cultures, traditions and customs are not very different from each other. The three countries also formed the Federation of Northern Rhodesia and Nyasaland in 1953. After the attainment of their political independence in the 1960s and 1980s, they continued to use English language as the official language and medium of instruction in all institutions of learning. Swaziland was once a British colony too and English is their official language and medium of instruction in all institutions of learning. Botswana is a neighbour of Zambia and cultural differences are very minimal.

In contrast, the interview schedule sample came from both England and Zambia. In England it comprised respondents with teaching experience ranging from 7 to 16 years. This made them less representative of the Zambian sample for the main study. One of the respondents worked in Botswana for six years as a Special Needs Co-ordinator (SENCO) in an established educational college that trains teachers in the inclusive education process. In England, English is the first language and medium of instruction in all institutions of learning. As such they were selected to seek clarity of the items and to look at possible flaws and confusions that may arise in the process of interviewing. Further piloting of the interview schedule took place in Zambia.

#### *b) Main study*

The target population for this study was teachers working in Zambian schools which had experience of inclusion. However, because I could not manage going round the whole of Zambia, two schools were selected: Woodlands 'A' and Mwashhi Basic Schools. Both schools are in the same geographical setting, along a rail line, although the former is located in the capital city Lusaka, as opposed to the latter which is in Kabwe in Central Province. The two schools have been in existence since 1945 and 1952 respectively. Both schools are government owned and operate as day schools. Lusaka was selected because it is highly urbanized, cosmopolitan, and multi-ethnic. As for Kabwe, its being a provincial headquarters made it another obvious choice for the study.

The total sample of the main study was 60, 30 teachers from Woodland 'A' Basic School, Lusaka, and 30 from Mwashhi Basic School in Kabwe. The sample of 60 respondents, 30 from each research site, was purposively selected. The use of this sampling method was convenient in that it enabled me to obtain data from professionals who were expected to have good knowledge of what was happening in the two schools. For

example 75% of the participants had at least 6 years, and some over 15 years of teaching experience. With this evidence one may assume that they knew what was going on in the two schools and in the educational system as a whole. In addition, this deliberate choice of respondents and research sites was aimed at drawing into the study a sample of teachers who belonged to different social and ethnic groups of Zambia since the two schools are situated in urban areas. Urban areas are where most of the country's 72 ethnic groups are represented, which helped me to elicit a variety of responses from a selection of teacher subjects who came from diverse tribal backgrounds.

All the teachers sampled in this study were employees of the Teaching Service Commission (TSC). While I was in the two research sites, teachers participated voluntarily in the study. Of the 60 respondents sampled 49 (82%) were female, while 11 (18%) were male.

95% of the teachers taught general education in the two schools, and only 5% taught special education. The grades taught by general education teachers ranged from pre-school to grade 9 (age 16+) in a variety of different subject areas. The teachers' certifications included 85% Primary, 10% Secondary and 5% dual certified to teach in general and special education respectively. The teachers' levels of higher education varied: 75% had certificates in primary education, 7% had Diplomas in Secondary education, and another 7% had Diplomas in special education. 1% had a Bachelor's degree and 10% had other qualifications not itemised in the questionnaire.

42% of the sampled teachers had taught for over 15 years, while more than half of the respondents had been teaching between 1 and 15 years. 2% had less than a year experience in a teaching career and 10% were approaching the end of their teaching career, with 30 or more years of experience.

52% of the sample had experience of teaching in an inclusive setting and 48% did not. The ages of the teachers in the sample varied from 21 to 60 years old and were evenly distributed within this range. All the teachers had attended various INSET programmes ranging from course work to audio and distance education in order to update themselves with the current trends and practice in education so as to provide quality education to children of diverse ability.

In order to cross check with the answers teachers offered in questionnaires, a total of 8 teachers were interviewed, as there was link between questions in the questionnaire and interview schedule. 4 teachers came from the Woodland 'A' Basic School in Lusaka and 4 from Mwashhi Basic School in Kabwe. Teachers were selected according to the roles they played in the school and according to their responses to the questionnaire. This meant that those who were very positive and those who were very negative were selected for interview. They were also selected according to roles they played in the school. These were head-teacher, senior-teachers and class-teachers. The head-teachers are heads of the institutions under study and oversee what is going on in the schools. The senior teachers are in charge of academic and curriculum in their schools, while teachers are on the ground of the teaching profession and the implementation of any reform that may take place in the school or class.

### **Research Sites**

The nature of the study necessitated choosing research sites where there was experience of inclusion. Two such schools were selected.

#### **Woodlands 'A' Basic School: Historical and Current situation**

The school is situated in the Woodlands area overlooking a filling station. The area houses low cost density residential places, mostly for top government workers, and a

business centre for shops and post office. Adjacent to the school is the Zambia Telephone (ZAMTEL) exchange station and the Main Water Works. Moving further west of the school, along Independence Avenue is the State House, the President's Official residence. In addition, the road network leading to the school is quite good despite having no public transport which uses Chindo road (main road passing by the school).

The school was established in 1945 under the British Colonial Education Act of 1944 (McGregor, 1967) as fee paying. It meant at the time that only pupils from the white community (of both sexes) were being enrolled at this school. The first phase lasted until 1964, when the policy of the government changed after political independence and gave birth to what one would refer to as non-fee paying Woodlands 'A' Primary School catering for grades 1 to 7. At this time every family was permitted to enrol his/her child at the school as long as the school requisites were met.

The third phase which is currently in force brought in the concept of Basic Education, a system running from grades 1 to 9, with age range of 7 to 16+ years. School management lies in the hands of Parent-Teacher Associations (PTA) as enshrined in the Education Act of 1964 document. The total enrolment of pupils was 2,266 in Grades 1-7 (1098 boys and 1168 girls), and 185 in Grades 8 and 9, 92 boys and girls.

Within the primary sector there existed a unit for 21 children with Learning Difficulties (L/D) ranging from mild to severe (4 severe, 11 moderate and 6 mild). School records indicate that a few children from the special unit have been functionally included, thus fostering inclusion. These are pupils with mild learning difficulties, who after educational assessment are rated fit for functional inclusion. Male teachers are 11, female 52, thus making a total of 63.

The head-teacher, currently, is male and holds a Bachelor of Education degree from the University of Zambia (UNZA). He was supported by a female Deputy Head-teacher and below her were 6 senior teachers. All these are senior experienced members of the Zambia Teaching Service.

The current practice for staff development is for each individual member of staff to upgrade him/herself either academically or professionally. To help meet this challenge there are short courses that the Ministry of Education organises for teachers. These are workshops, seminars or meetings which update teachers with new trends in their profession.

Comparatively, Woodlands 'A' Basic School is rated one of the good schools within the capital city of Lusaka in terms of infrastructure, staffing, discipline and above all the tone and ethos of the school.

#### **Mwashi Basic School: Historical and current situation**

Mwashi Basic School was established in 1952 as Broken Hill Railway Catholic School under the auspices of the Catholic Educational Secretariat. The second phase was politically driven when in 1964 Zambia attained her political independence and the school had a rebirth in terms of its name to Mwashi from Headman Mwashingele. The school stands where the named Headman lived. Mwashi Basic School is in Kabwe, the heart of the Provincial Headquarters of Central Province of Zambia.

The school has a capacity of 67 teaching staff of which only 14 are males while 53 are females. The administrative structure has the head-teacher, a male at the time, supported by the female deputy head-teacher and 6 senior teachers.

There were 1,476 pupils on roll. 742 were boys and 734 girls.

The school has two other units under its educational control. These are the pre-school with enrolment of 18 boys and 25 girls and a special unit for children with learning disabilities, comprising 9 boys and 8 girls. The latter group are children with learning difficulties ranging from mild, moderate to severe. Further, the special unit runs an itinerant programme for those children who cannot attend school because of the severity of their impairments. The ultimate goal of the school is to promote full inclusion, given necessary support from relevant stakeholders.

### **Further training and employment prospects for children with learning disabilities**

Within the town of Kabwe is the Kabwe Trades Training Institute. Besides training the ordinary youths, the institute has a programme for children with disabilities. The tertiary group are graduates from Mwashu Basic School unit; usually those who enter trades training are those with mild to moderate learning difficulties. After graduation a Finnish Association for Children and Adults with Mental Handicap (FEMA) absorb most of them into poultry keeping from which each one of them is given an allowance of K60 000.00 (£10) per month, at the time. FEMA has acquired land within Kabwe where crops and fish farming will be established. The main aim of FEMA is to rehabilitate the prescribed children and adults in the community in which they live.

Teachers at Mwashu Basic School have the following strands of professional qualifications:

**Table: Distribution of teachers' Professional qualifications**

Qualification	No of teachers	Male	Female
Certificate in Primary Education	55	09	46
Diploma in Secondary Education	11	04	07
Diploma in Special Education	01	01	00
<b>Total</b>	<b>67</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>53</b>

As earlier indicated in this chapter, current practice is for teachers to improve their qualifications on their own in order for them to keep abreast with trends development and practice in education. The District Education Office has initiated a school based INSET programme (SIP) for teachers, who after completion are awarded with certificates of attendance. The programme is aimed at sharpening teachers' professional tools.

#### **The state of economy in the catchment's area**

The Kabwe economy is quite flat mainly due to the closure of the mining industry and mass redundancies due to the Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP). The Zambian Railways has equally been faced with retrenchments. Government departments are no exception to the retrenchments of the day. With those who have been spared, a lot of them have unsustainable salaries, while others go for months without being paid their salaries. Having this picture in mind, one would safely state that a lot of people in Kabwe are facing economic hardship. One would also endorse that providing children with educational necessities of life may seem to be out of context because of the economic levels of many families in Kabwe. Until such a time when the economy will pick up, the constraints have a bearing on the numbers of children going to Mwashu Basic School and more so for children with learning difficulties.



While it is useful for the reader to know the description of the two schools, it would be good to note that the analysis of data did not distinguish between them since they were chosen to be representative of the schools throughout Zambia which are attempting to embrace inclusion.

## **Chapter 5 Pilot Study – aims, objectives, findings and lessons learned**

### **Introduction**

This Chapter reports on the aims, findings and lessons learned from the pilot study of teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education conducted in the United Kingdom. The chapter comprises the following components:

Aim

Objectives of the Pilot Study

Findings

Discussion of Significant Results

Qualitative Comments on Questionnaire

Interviews

Limitations of the Study

Conclusion

Lessons Learnt for the Main Study

### **Aim**

The pilot study was designed and planned to inform the subsequent main study to be carried out in Zambia.

### **Objectives of the pilot study**

The main objectives of the pilot study are listed below:

- (i) To sharpen research instruments for data collection by refining interview schedule and procedures;
- (ii) To test the external reliability (test-retest) of the questionnaire instrument and checking items for ambiguities;

(iii) To explore demographic factors influencing teacher responses to the questionnaire items.

(iv) To practise trial data analysis.

## **Findings**

### *Sharpening research instruments*

After the respondents completed the questionnaire/interview they were asked the following questions:

Are there any questions you found hard to answer?

Which and why?

Are there questions you would expect that are missing? What are they?

Seventy per cent of the respondents indicated that the questionnaire and interview schedule questions were clear and friendly. Thirty per cent of the respondents suggested refinement of some items. The following refinements were effected:

In part one, demographic information, statement 8 'if yes, years of teaching experience in an inclusive setting' was removed and replaced by 'Type of training acquired' with three options.

Item 9 'My knowledge of inclusive education is through' was replaced by 'INSET programmes attended on inclusive education'. Some respondents indicated that the original was not clear and might not be understood by the main study sample.

Similarly, in part two:

'How education should be,' statements, 1, 3, 4, 7, 8, 9, 10 and 12 were deleted.

Item number 5 was refined.

'Attitudes to disability and pupils' rights,' statements 1 and 3 were removed.

Items 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11 and 12 in section three, 'Teaching experience' were removed.

In section four, 'How education is' two items were removed. Item 2 replicated item 1. Item 4 was removed because it promoted salary increases above commitment to pupils. They were replaced with items relating to views of disabled children as participating members of the school community, and feelings of personal success in meeting diverse needs in the classroom.

### *Testing reliability*

I wanted to test the reliability of the questionnaire to find out its consistency in data collection. This was organised by using an approach of comparing responses in the first and second administered batches of questionnaires. This method of testing reliability by comparing scores of first and second administered questionnaire may work.

Reliability refers to the degree with which repeated measurements taken under identical circumstances will yield the same results (Trochim 2000). Reliability testing together with tests of validity gives the researcher evidence of whether the results can be trusted.

There are three major categories of reliability for most instruments (Lewis, 1999). These are test-retest, equivalent form, and internal consistency. Test-retest measures consistency from one time to the next. It is said that the shorter the time gap, the higher the correlation; the longer the time gap, the lower the correlation (Siegle, 2000).

Equivalent-form measures consistency between two versions of an instrument, while internal-consistency measures consistency within the instrument. A fourth category, inter-rater reliability is often used with performance and product

assessments (Siegle, 2000). A minimum reliability of 70% is required (Trochim, 2000), although some researchers feel that it should be higher in order to rate the instrument reliable. This study used the test-retest method in order to assess reliability of the selected questionnaire items across two occasions.

Initially twenty-five copies of a structured self-administered questionnaire were distributed to respondents through research assistants at the two Universities, Manchester and Newcastle upon Tyne. The return rate was 23, which represented 92%. There was a lapse of two weeks before the ten second copies of the same questionnaire could be distributed to the same respondents. The return rate was 100%.

Questionnaire items 4, 5, and 9 achieved 84%, 89% and 95% reliability. Many reasons could be attributed to this. The respondents may have changed their mind because in the first instance they did not know what they were doing or did not understand the items or were not decided or it could be that the items were faulty. All other questions had a reliability rating of 100%.

*Demographic Information*

The respondents who participated in this study came from the following countries: Zambia, Malawi, Zimbabwe, Botswana and Swaziland. These came from three different geographical settings, with urban dominant, as can be seen below.

**Table 4: Distribution of participants according to geographical setting**

SNo	Geographical Setting	No of schools	Percentage (%)
1	Rural	2	9%
2	Peri-urban	8	35%
3	Urban	13	56%

<b>Totals</b>	<b>23</b>	<b>100%</b>
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The next demographic finding concerned the official position held by participants. These are shown in the table below:

**Table 5: Participants' Administrative and teaching positions**

SN o	Position	No of participants	Percentage (%)
1	Head-teacher	5	22%
2	Deputy Head-teacher	2	9%
3	Senior teacher	3	13%
4	Class teacher	9	39%
5	Other	4	17%
<b>Totals</b>		<b>23</b>	<b>100%</b>

What the table above indicates is that the largest percentage of the respondents was class-teachers, followed by head teachers. From the 23 participants, of the 4 who held positions not itemised in the questionnaire, 2 were teacher trainers (Lecturers), 1 was a Senior Inspector of schools-Special Education and the other was a researcher. The participants of this study were drawn from a cross-section of the teaching fraternity, an indication that they were professionals well-versed in educational issues including inclusive education.

Out of all the 23 participants in this study males formed the majority (ratio 16:7), representing approximately 70% men and 30% women respectively. However, the distribution within this convenience sample is unlikely to match the Zambian sample of the main study where the number of women in teaching profession outweighs the number of men.

I considered it important to know the educational qualifications of each participant as research indicates that higher qualifications are typically associated with more positive attitudes people may have towards people with

disabilities (Galis, 1994). The qualifications ranged from certificate in primary education to University degree education. The results are presented below:

**Table 6: Participants' Educational attainment**

SN o	Qualification	No of participants	Percentage (%)
1	Certificate in primary education	2	9%
2	Certificate on special education	0	0%
3	Diploma in secondary Education	4	17%
4	Diploma in Special Education	3	13%
5	B.A. with Education	4	17%
6	B.Ed. In Special Education	0	0%
7	M.A. with Education	4	17%
8	M.Ed.	1	6%
9	Other	5	21%
<b>Totals</b>		<b>23</b>	<b>100%</b>

More than half of the participants (60%) were below first degree level in educational attainment while less than half were university graduates. Although the sample had come from African English speaking countries, I would not describe them as typical; they were more highly educated than the majority of teachers in primary schools in Zambia who have achieved two year certificates, with probably only a few having an additional qualification of primary diploma. The age distribution of participants was 21-50 years, as follows:

**Table 7: Participants' distribution of age range**

Age range	No. of respondents	Percentages (%)
Below 25 years	1	4%

25 -30 years	5	22%
31-40 years	11	48%
41-50 years	6	26%
<b>Totals</b>	<b>23</b>	<b>100%</b>

Connected with age range is the teaching experience of the participants: no participant had taught for less than a year and the majority had more than 6 years experience (See the table below):

**Table 8: Participants' distribution of Years of Teaching Experience**

<b>Years of teaching experience</b>	<b>No. of scores</b>	<b>Percentages (%)</b>
1-5 years	6	26%
6-10 years	4	18%
11-15 years	7	30%
Over 15 years	6	26%
<b>Totals</b>	<b>23</b>	<b>100%</b>

Participants were asked whether they were teaching in an inclusive setting and the majority (61%) said they were not.

**Table 9: Participants Current Teaching Practice Responses to Inclusion**

<b>SNo</b>	<b>Responses</b>	<b>No. of respondents</b>	<b>Percentage (%)</b>
1	Yes	8	35%
2	No	14	61%
3	Don't know	1	4%
<b>Totals</b>		<b>23</b>	<b>100%</b>

Participants were also asked about the source of their knowledge about inclusion (see table below):

**Table 10: Participants' sources of knowledge about inclusion**

<b>SNo</b>	<b>Programme</b>	<b>No. of respondents</b>	<b>Percentage (%)</b>
1	Course work	12	52%
2	Workshops	6	26%



3	Seminars	1	4%
4	Meetings	0	0%
5	Reading books on the subject	4	18%
6	Audio-visual and distance education	0	0%
<b>Totals</b>		<b>23</b>	<b>100%</b>

As indicated in the table above, more than half of the respondents (52%) had knowledge about inclusion through taught coursework programmes from some institutions of learning. Almost a third revealed that they became knowledgeable about inclusion through attending workshops and seminars, less than a quarter through reading books. In my opinion, teachers are the people who make learning possible. Lack of knowledge of inclusive agenda may trigger negative attitudes, although it is said that attitudes may be related to an individual's perceptions and willingness to accept pupils with disabilities in the general education classrooms (Glick & Schubert, 1990).

The last in the series of demographic information deals with pupil/teacher ratio as below:

**Table 11: Pupil/teacher ratio in participants' schools**

SNo	No. of Pupils per Teacher	No. of respondents	Percentage (%)
1	Not applicable	4	17%
2	1-10 pupils per teacher	5	22%
3	11-20 pupils per teacher	1	4%
4	21-30 pupils per teacher	1	4%
5	31-40 pupils per teacher	4	17%
6	41-50 pupils per teacher	6	27%
7	51-60 pupils per Teacher	2	9%
	Over 60 pupils per Teacher	0	0%
<b>Totals</b>		<b>23</b>	<b>100%</b>

More than half of the participants (53%) were practising on large classes of more than 31 pupils.

The demographic information obtained from the study was compared with previous studies. The profile of the

respondents for this study was similar to the profile of previous studies such as Millar (1996) and Kasonde-Ng'andu & Moberg (2001) in the areas of gender, highest education attained, age, years of teaching experience and INSET programmes attended on inclusive education. However, a decade ago a similar study conducted by Arrington (1992) in USA found less than 10% of the participants had received training in inclusive education, compared with 52% of the participants in this study who had undertaken coursework in inclusion.

### **Discussion of demographic results**

The findings have been presented and analysed to show the patterns, overview and detail of the responses. These are now discussed in relation to the literature and with regards to implications for the main study.

The majority of the participants were from the urban setting. Literature (Galis, 1994) indicates that urban teachers are more likely to give diverse opinions regarding the issue of inclusive education as they represent most of the ethnic groups in the countries sampled. The Zambian sample in the main study may be matched to the pilot sample in that the two research centres are established in urban settings.

In view of gender, the number of male respondents by far outweighed the females, which is atypical of the Zambian teaching population generally.

Education attainment by each respondent ranged from certificate to master's degree both in general and special education. Coupled with this is their teaching experience, which has a continuum of 1-15+ years. Based on these results one would safely state that despite some of them being undergraduates, but linking with their teaching experience (table 8) they seem to have adequate knowledge,

skills and positive attitudes towards the inclusion of children with disabilities in general education classrooms. Connected with education attainment and teaching experience is the age range of the respondents (21-50 years). I could also assume that these are teachers who have served their governments for a good number of years with wide experience. From the statistics available, it appears that the majority of respondents who participated in this study were not teaching in an inclusive teaching situation in their countries, which in a way may pose a concern in terms of fostering inclusion. In line with this is their diverse teaching experience in an inclusive environment. It must be appreciated that inclusion in the countries sampled is a new phenomenon thus the practice seems still in its infancy.

Results indicate that all participants had access to information about inclusion in one way or another including the utilization of course works workshops, seminars and reading books on the subject.

The results of pupil/teacher ratios in respondents' respective schools, indicates that pupil/teacher ratios ranged from under 1:10 to 1-60.

### *Trial data analysis and interpretation*

After fieldwork was accomplished, the data were coded and processed. Therefore, this section presents and discusses the findings from the data collected. Data collected were in two forms, that is quantitative and qualitative respectively.

Statistical approach was applied to quantitative data by utilizing frequency tables. I also used interviews which in the main study will be used to collect qualitative data to refine the items.

Analysis was based on themes arising from the research literature. The first part of the analysis was descriptive and presents findings in terms of attributes of participants and their experience of inclusion. The demographics are also discussed. Themes are analysed in relation to attributes of demographics. The themes are:

- how education should be
- attributes to disability and pupils' rights
- teaching experience
- how education is.

**Analysis of themes**

Part two presents and discusses the items in the four themes. These are 'How education should be, Attitudes to disability and pupils' rights, teaching experience, and how education is.' Theme 1 'how education should be' had 12 items, Theme 2 'attitudes to disability and pupils rights' had 7 statements. Theme 3 'Teaching experience' had twelve items and Theme 4 'how education is' had 5 statements. Each item in the four themes had a five point rating scale. In the rating scale 1 stands for strongly disagree, 2 disagree, 3 stand for neutral, 4 agree and 5 strongly agree.

**Theme 1: How Education should be**

This section presents and discusses data on responses regarding attitudes to 'How education should be.' This theme comprises 12 closed items as indicated above (See table below):

**Table 12: Responses to questionnaire section - How Education should be**

SN	STATEMENT	SD	D	N	A	SA
1	General education should be available for all	0	0	1	6	16

	pupils					
2	All pupils should be educated in the general education classrooms to the greatest extent possible	0	1	3	6	13
3	Our school has a comprehensive staff development programme for all teachers	4	5	3	8	3
4	Our school has its own policy regarding meeting the needs of all pupils	3	4	4	5	7
5	All ordinary teachers should have the primary responsibility for the education of all pupils including those with disabilities in their classrooms	1	1	4	8	9
6	All academic expectations should be the same for all pupils in an inclusive setting	3	4	2	6	8
7	Placing pupils with disabilities in the general education classrooms means quality education for all	2	5	4	4	8
8	Only teachers with specialised training are able to effectively teach all pupils in an inclusive setting	3	6	1	7	6
9	Curriculum aimed at for promoting inclusion should be as flexible as possible	1	1	3	6	12
10	Participation of all pupils should be a priority in an inclusive setting	0	0	2	9	12
11	Class-size should be reduced to effectively promote inclusion for pupils with disabilities in the general education classrooms	2	3	3	9	6
12	Successful inclusion depends entirely on the	3	4	3	5	8

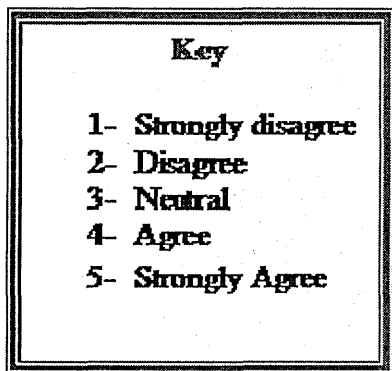
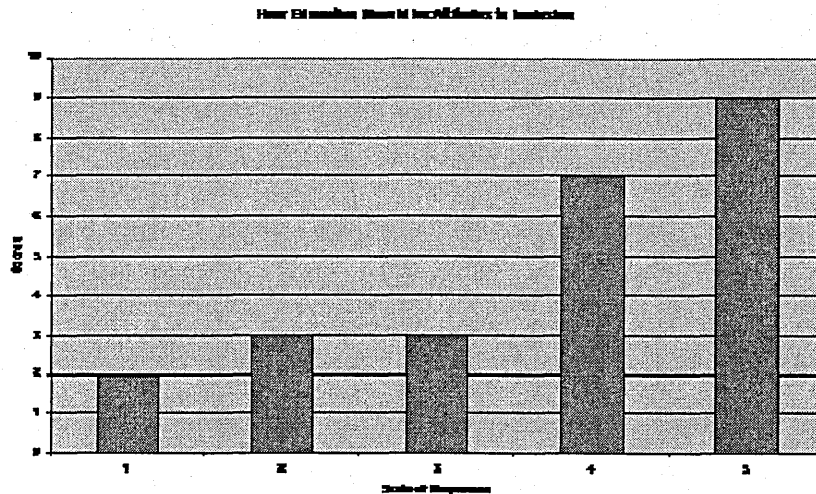
	co-operation of support teachers					
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By amalgamating 'strongly disagree' with 'disagree', and 'strongly agree' with 'agree' we can compare negative and positive response rates.

The pattern of results for the theme 'how education should be' seems to be quite interesting in that respondents' positive responses outweigh the negative responses. Items **1.** 'general education should be available for all pupils'; **2.** 'all pupils to be educated in general education'; **9** 'curriculum flexibility'; and **10** 'participation of all pupils should be a priority'; achieved more than three-quarters positive results, while the rest of the statements achieved half or slightly more than half positive responses. There is also some variety of opinions in the rest of the items although still the positive picture outweighs the negative (See table 12).

The results on 'how education should be' are summed up into one bar chart (See figure 1), and furthermore, the statement with highest positive scores in the tables have been analysed with respect to four dimensions, gender, age, position, and teaching experience. (See figures 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5).

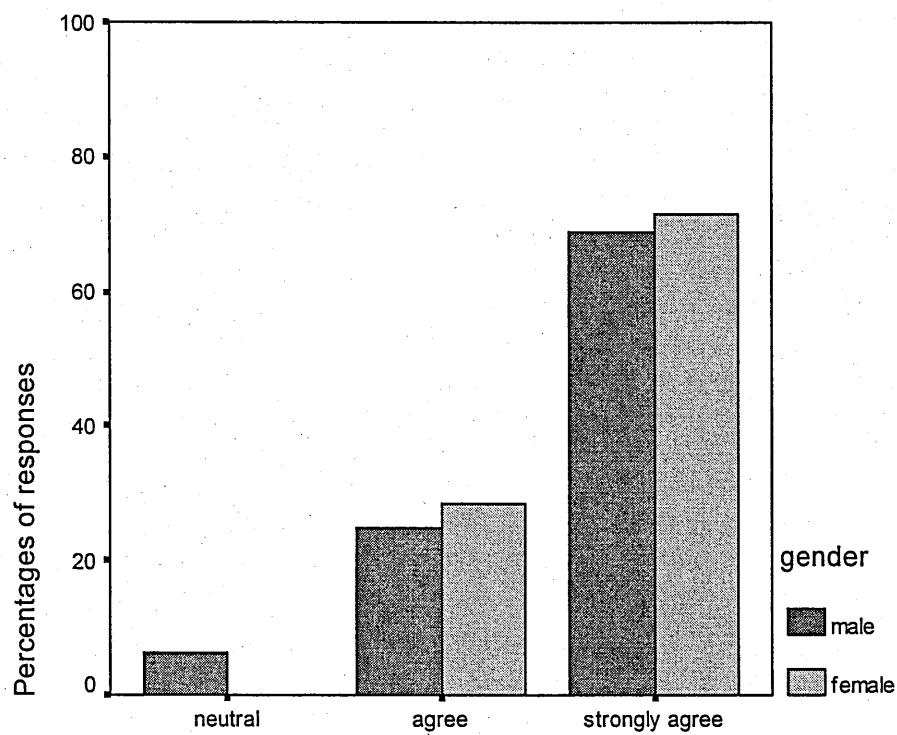
In the theme, 'how education should be', there is very little difference between the attitudes of male and female respondents. Statistical analysis reveals no significant differences (see appendix).



**Figure 1**

Similarly, in response to question 1, no gender differences are seen.

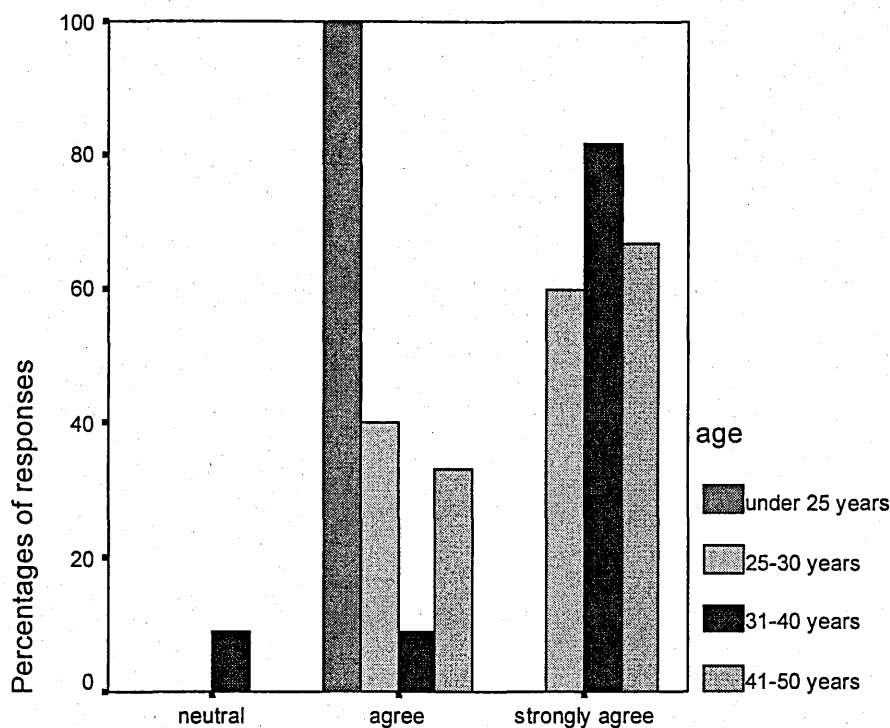
**Figure 2: Distribution of responses to statement 'General education should be available for all pupils' by gender**





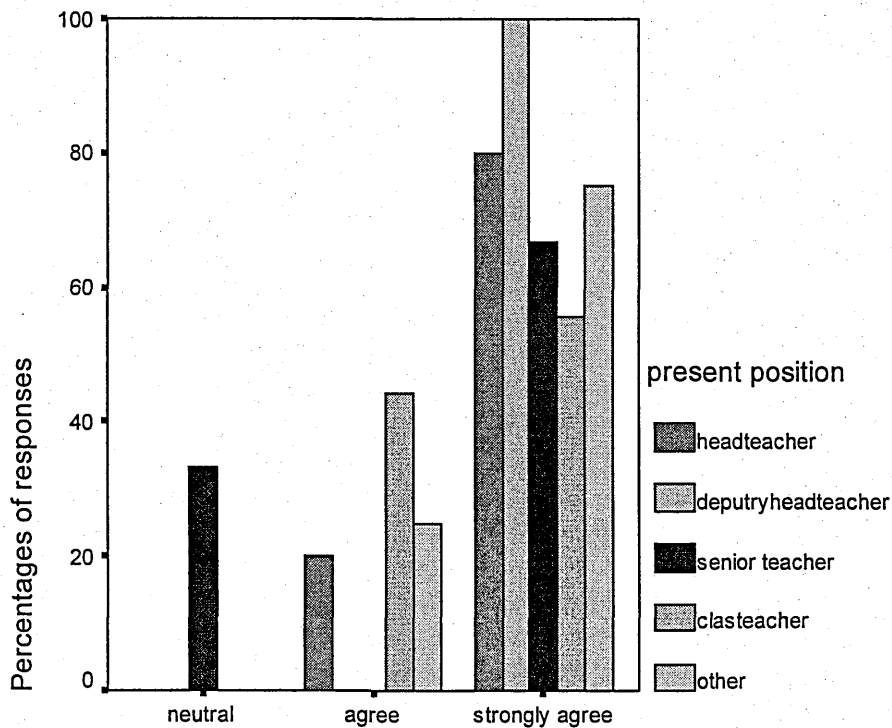
In terms of age, the 31-40 years band registered the highest percentage of participants expressing the most positive attitudinal results to the statement 'general education should be available to all pupils' (See figure 3). The least positive attitudes were noted from age the band 41-50 years.

**Figure 3: Distribution of responses to statement 'General education should be available for all pupils' age**



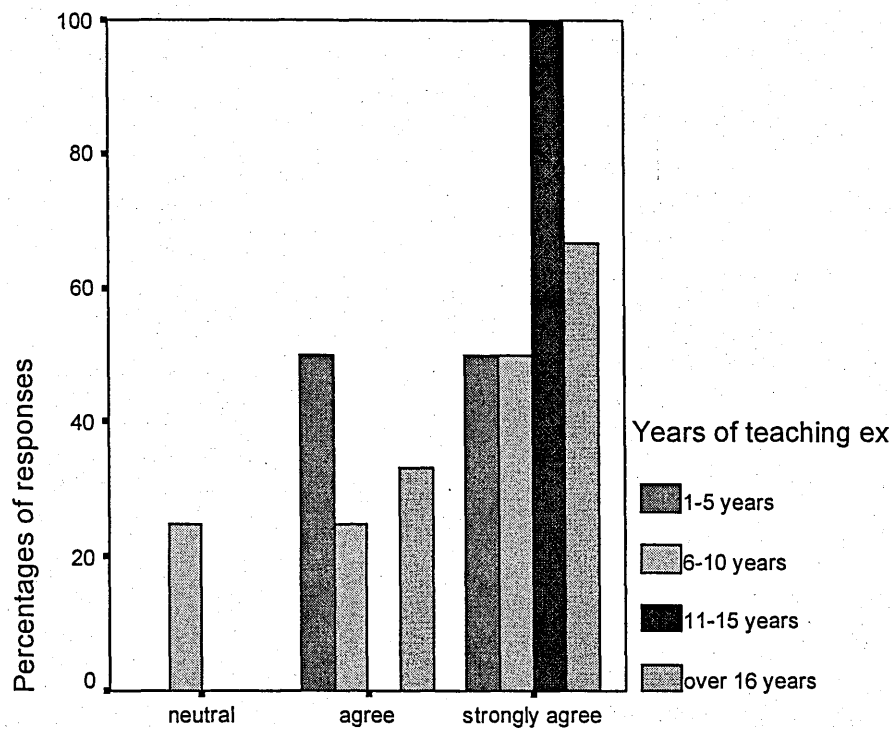
In terms of present position, deputy heads recorded the most positive results, although this is likely to reflect the small sample (n=2) followed by head teachers (See figure 4).

**Figure 4: Distribution of responses to statement 'General education should be available to all pupils' by position**



Participants with teaching experience 11-15 years endorsed more positive attitudes to the statement 'General education should be available to all'. Proportionately the lowest positive attitudes were registered from respondents with teaching experience 6-10 years (See figure 5):

**Figure 5: Distribution of responses to statement 'General education should be available to all pupils' by teaching experience**



## Theme 2: Attitudes to disability and pupils' rights

This section is not different from section one in terms of its organisation. However, section two comprises 7 items. See Table 13.

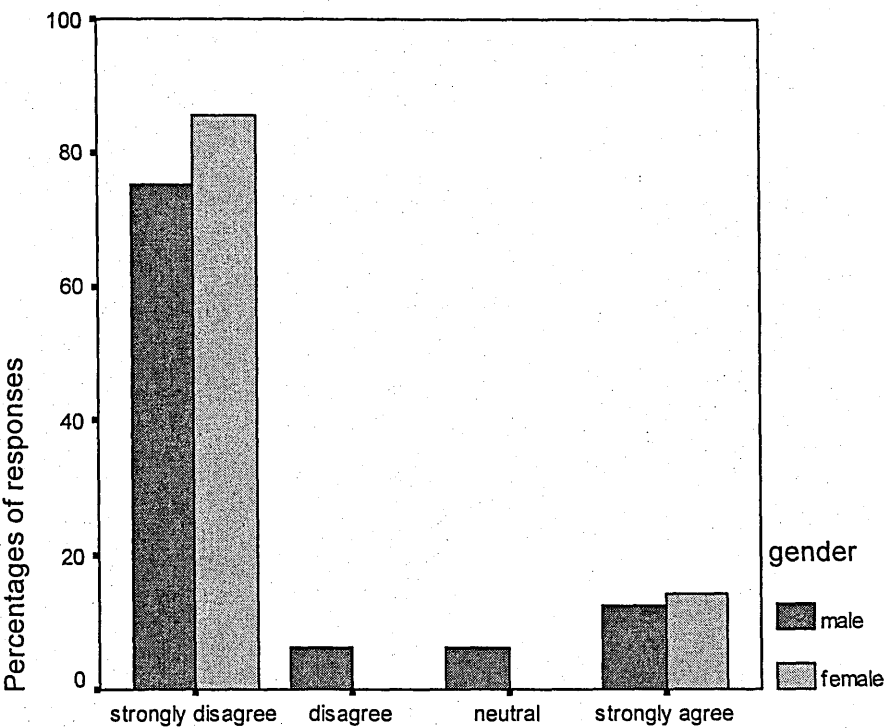
**Table 13: Responses to questions in section-Attitudes to Disability and Pupils Rights**

SN	STATEMENT	SD	D	N	A	SA
1	Disabled children are a bad omen to the family and community as a whole	18	1	1	0	3
2	Education, is a fundamental right for all children including those with disabilities	1	0	0	1	21
3	Children with disabilities are the same as non-disabled peers	3	3	3	6	8
4	Physically disabled pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms	0	2	1	9	11
5	Intellectually impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms	1	4	3	8	7
6	Visually impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms	4	2	3	6	9
7	Hearing impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms	3	3	4	7	6

The wording of item number 1 was reversed from negative to positive and respondents were asked whether or not they saw disabled children as 'a bad omen to the family and the community as a whole.' More than three-quarters 'strongly disagreed,' and only 3 were in 'strong agreement'. The results for this item give a positive indication that strongly negative attitudes to disability were in the minority. The same respondents positively endorse education as a fundamental right for all children. Further, these results were analysed according to gender, age, position, and teaching experience (See figures 6, 7, 8, and 9).

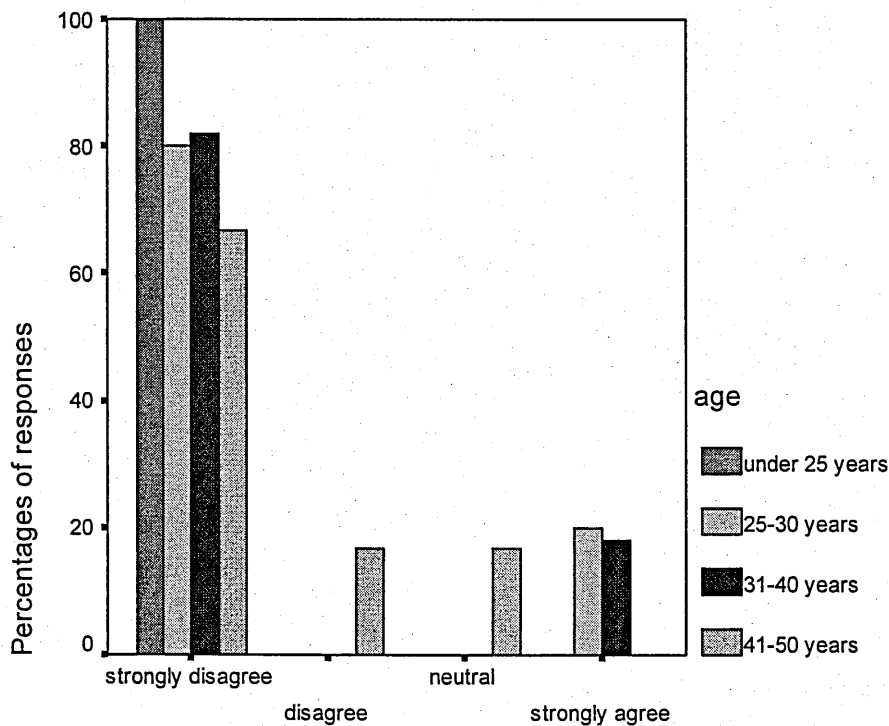
According to gender, female respondents appeared to disagree more strongly that 'disabled children are a bad omen to the family and community as a whole', than male counterparts in the item stated above (See figure 6).

Figure 6: Distribution of responses to statement 'Disabled children are a bad omen to the family and community as a whole' by gender



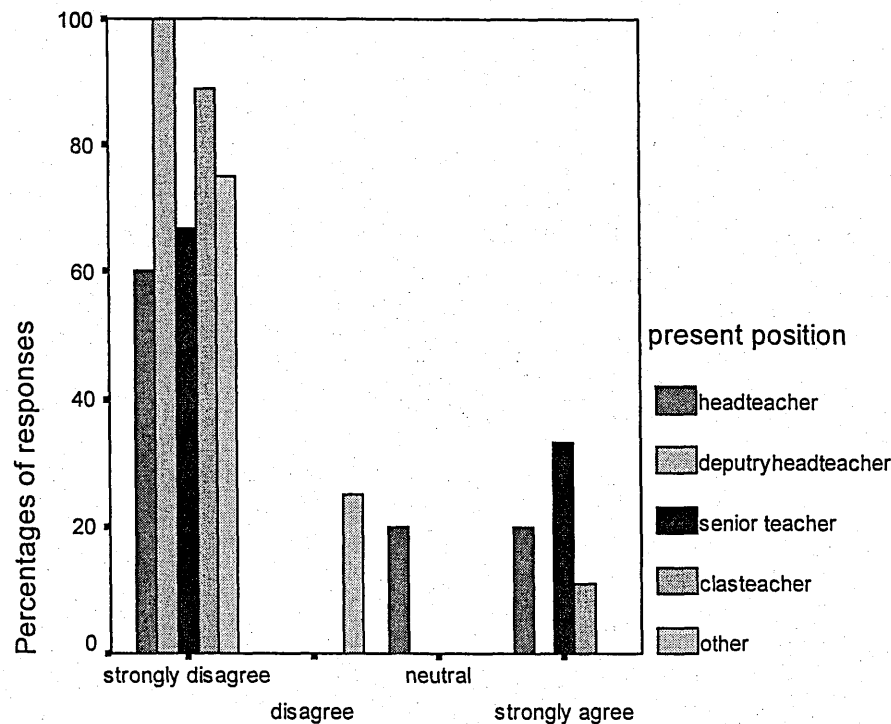
In terms of age, proportionately more positive attitudes were registered from participants in the age band 31-40 years. The least positive attitudes were from age band 'under 25 years' (See figure 7).

**Figure 7: Distribution of responses to statement 'Disabled children are a bad omen to the family and community as a whole' by age**



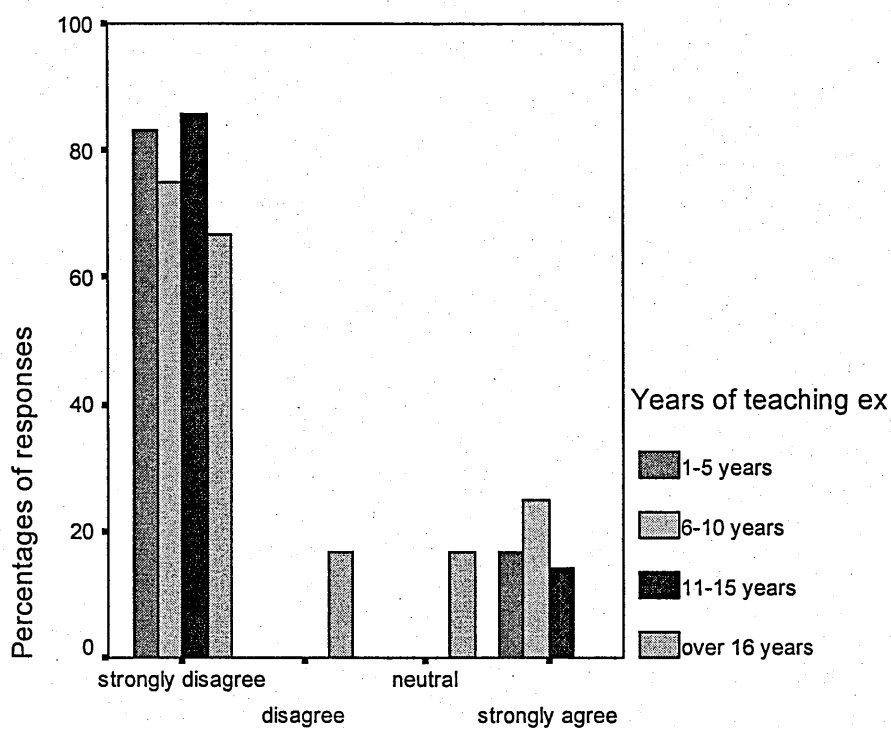
According to present position, teachers and deputy heads expressed proportionately more disagreement with the statement, 'disabled children are a bad omen to the family and community as a whole. The lowest ratings were from the deputy head-teachers and senior teachers (See figure 8).

**Figure 8: Distribution of responses to statement 'Disabled children are a bad omen to the family and community as a whole' by position**



With regards to teaching experience the 11-15 years group had proportionately the highest group percentage of those who strongly disagreed with the item 'disabled children are a bad omen to the family and community as a whole' (See figure 9).

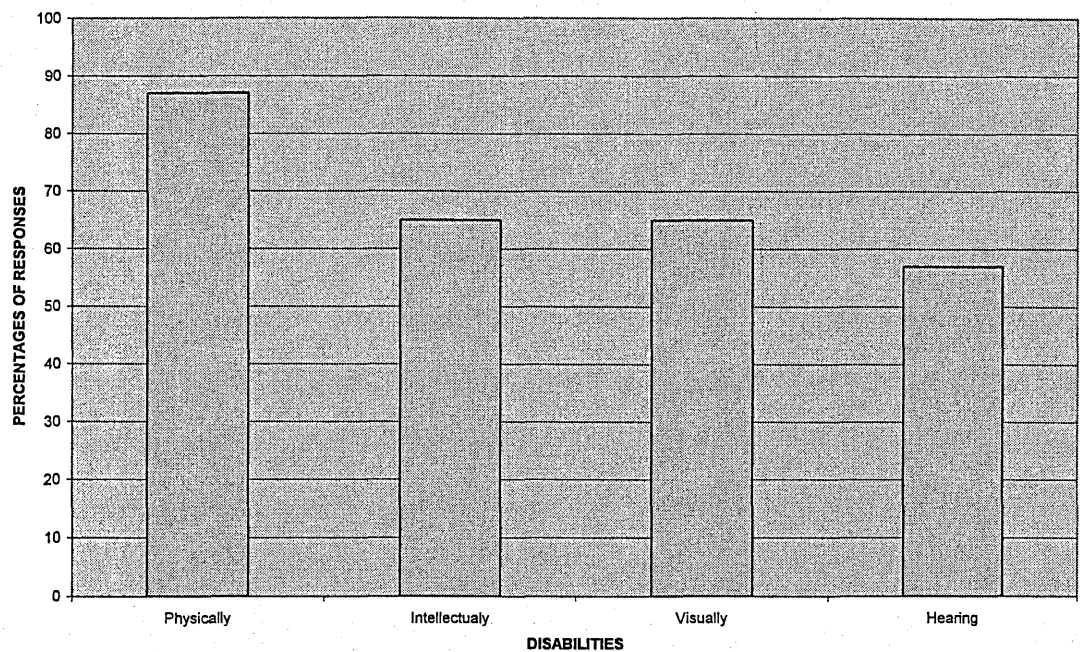
**Figure 9: Distribution of responses to statement 'Disabled children are a bad omen to the family and community as whole' by teaching experience**





There was a variety of opinions regarding rights of participation in general education classrooms. The majority of them were in agreement with the right to education in general education classrooms (See figure 10).

**Figure 10: Favourable attitudes to pupil's rights to inclusion by Zambian types of disability**



The teaching experience section comprises twelve (12) statements. Below is the table of results:

**Theme 3: Teaching Experience**

**Table 14: Responses to questionnaire section-Teaching Experience**

SN	STATEMENT	SD	D	N	A	SA
1	I have experience with pupils with visual impairments in the general education classrooms	6	3	5	6	3
2	I have experience with pupils with hearing impairments in the general education classrooms	7	2	4	6	4
3	I have experience with pupils with physical impairments in the general education classrooms	2	1	2	13	5
4	I have experience with all pupils with disabilities in the general education classrooms	9	5	0	4	5
5	I have experience with pupils with intellectual impairments in the general education classrooms	0	5	1	11	6
6	I have experience with pupils with disabilities in segregated units	6	6	2	6	4
7	In our school all pupils engage in similar activities at the same time	4	5	2	6	6
8	In our school all pupils receive the aid of the teacher as needed and are provided with immediate feedback within the general education classroom setting	3	3	5	7	5
9	In our school all pupils are made to feel welcome and seen as participating members of a general education classroom environment	0	5	6	6	6

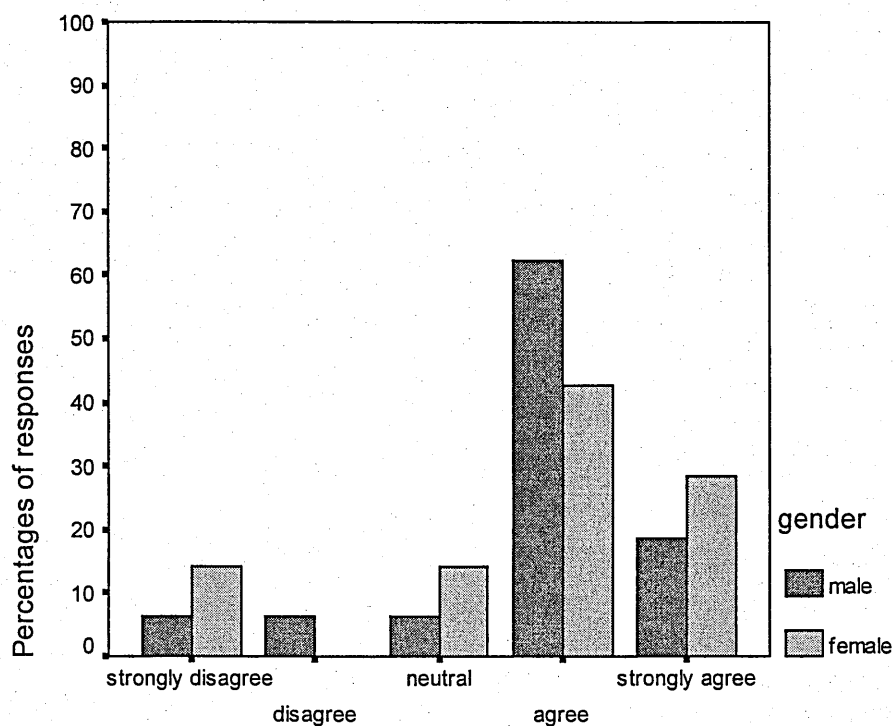
10	In our school all pupils successes are celebrated equally	3	3	5	7	5
11	In our school all pupils assist each other in the process of learning	0	5	6	6	6
12	I am now or have been successful in meeting diverse needs in the general education classroom	1	3	4	8	7

The overall picture emerging from the results above is that at least some teachers had teaching experience with each disability. More than half of the participants had experience with physically and intellectually impaired pupils in general education classrooms. Less than half had experience with pupils with visual and hearing impairments in general education classrooms.

The statement with the highest score in the table above was further analysed according to four dimensions: gender, age, position, and teaching experience.

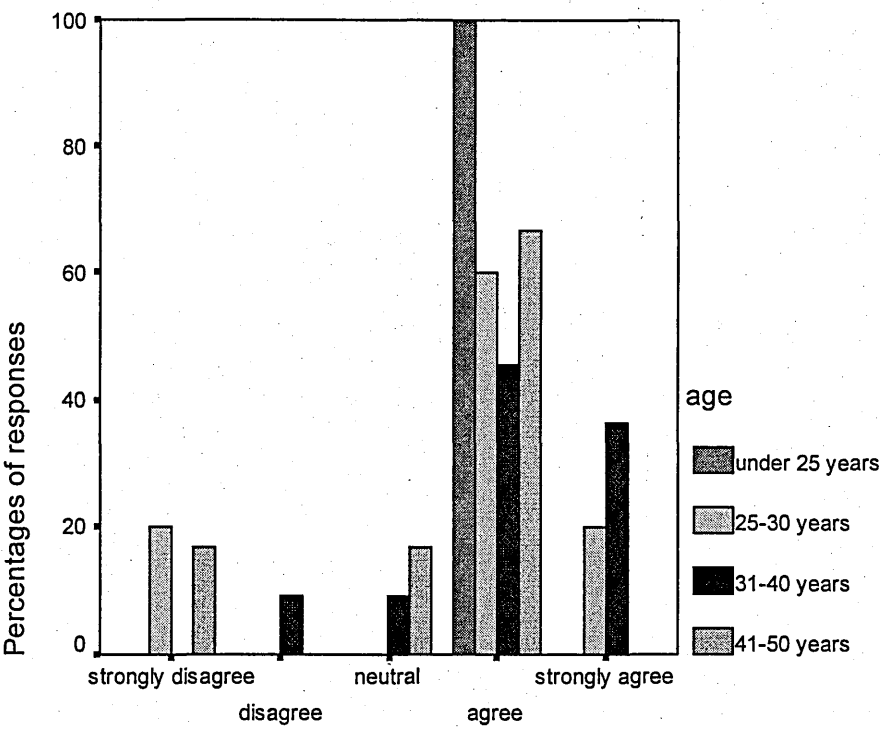
With regards to gender, male participants registered proportionately more positive attitudes to the 'I have experience with pupils with physical impairments in general education classrooms' than female respondents (See figure 11). There is no significant difference between the groups.

**Figure 11: Distribution of responses to the statement 'I have experience with pupils with physical impairments in the general education classrooms' by gender**



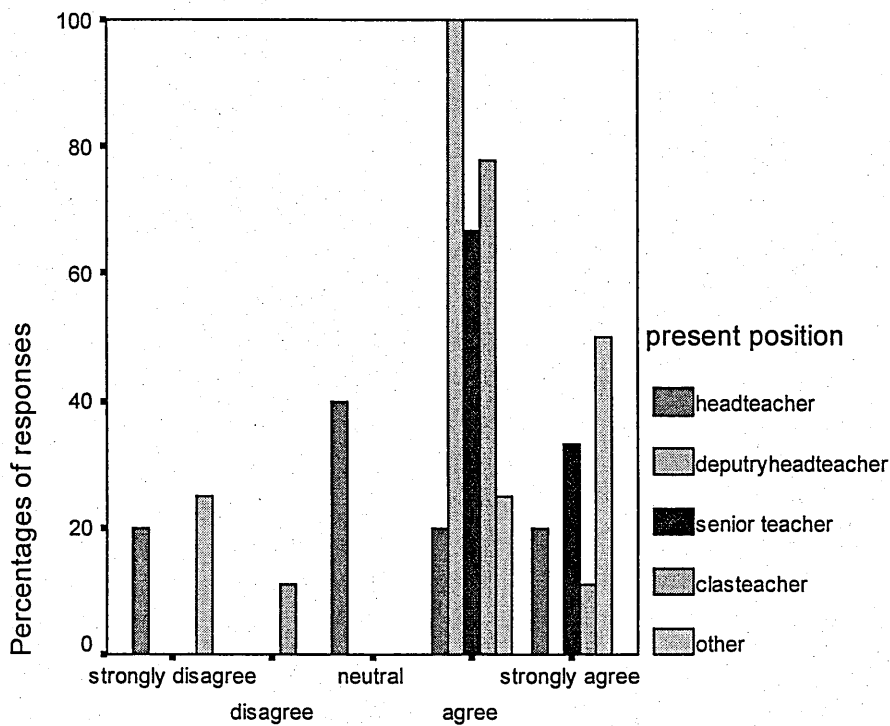
As regards to age, the age group 31-40 years recorded the highest positive results. The age group 'less than 25 years' agreed, (1 person only) (See figure 12).

**Figure 12: Distribution of responses to all the participants in the statement 'I have experience with pupils with physical impairments in the general education classrooms' by age**



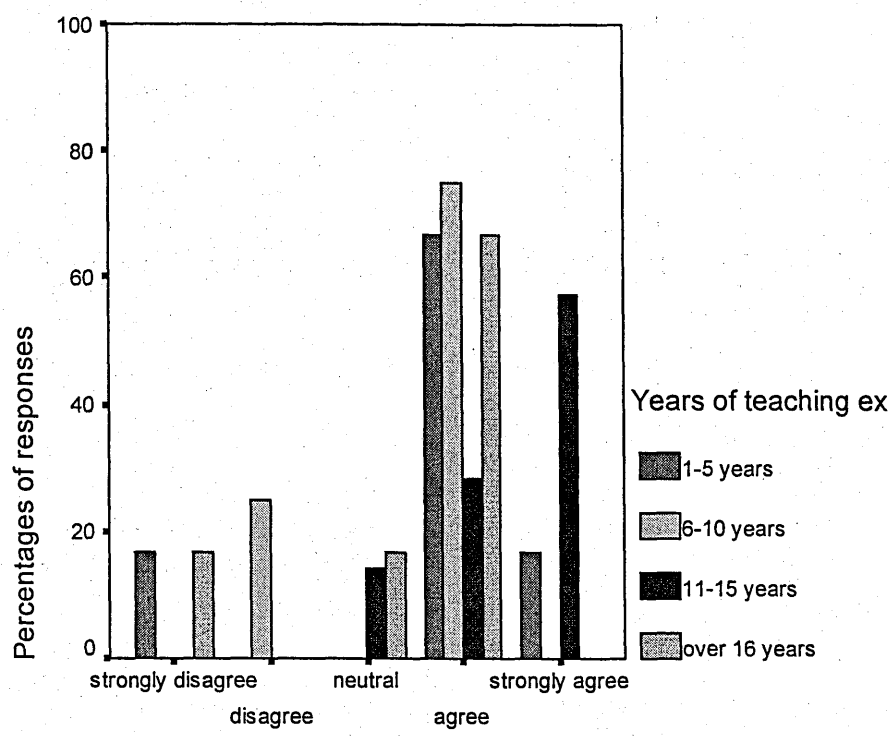
With regard to current status, class teachers recorded proportionately more positive results to the statement 'I have experience with pupils with physical impairments in the general education classrooms'. Less positive results came from deputy head-teachers (See figure 13).

**Figure 13: Distribution of responses to statement 'I have experience with pupils with impairments in the general education classrooms' by position**



Participants who had been teaching for '11-15 years' registered proportionately more agreement with the item 'I have experience with pupils with physical impairments in general education classrooms'. The most disagreement came from respondents with 6-10 years teaching experience (See figure 14).

**Figure 14: Distribution of responses to statement 'I have experience with pupils with physical impairments in the general education classrooms' by teaching experience**



**Theme 4: How Education is**

In this section, there are five (5) statements. Below is the table of findings:

**Table 15: Responses to questionnaire section-How Education is**

SN	STATEMENT	SD	D	N	A	SA
1	In our school teachers are provided with adequate time to plan together for the benefit of all pupils	1	5	3	8	6
2	In our school staff is able to collaborate on education issues	1	5	4	7	6
3	Our schools has adequate teaching/learning resources to meet the needs of all pupils	1	2	3	9	8
4	Improved salaries and conditions of service for teachers and other support staff would be an effective strategy for promoting inclusive education	5	0	4	4	10
5	In our school all teachers have opportunity to go for extra training to update themselves with the recent trends, developments and practice in education	1	5	1	3	13

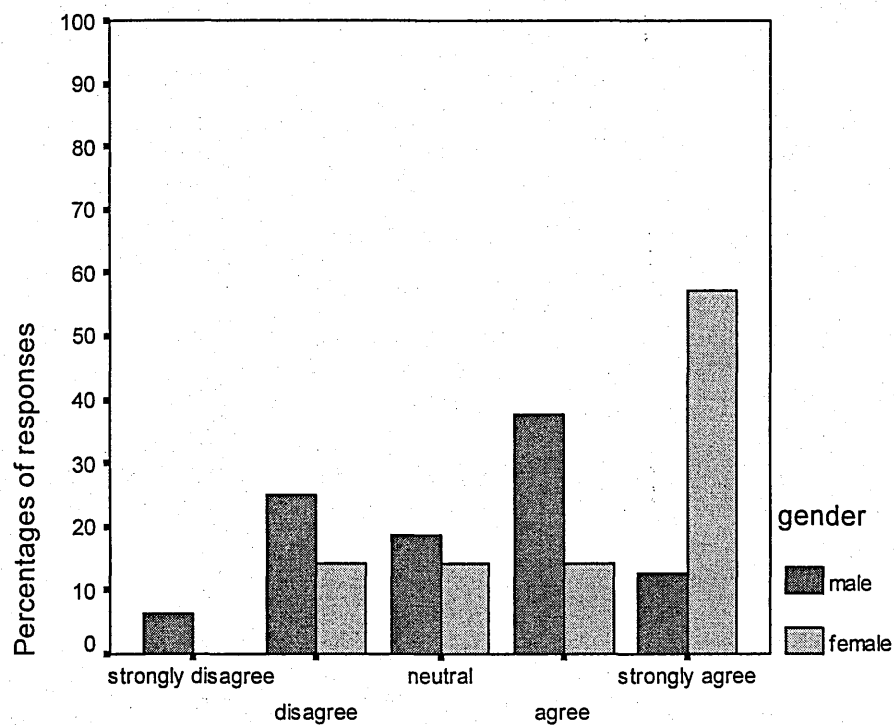
Interestingly, the patterns of results are tilted on the positive side although some pockets of negative responses exist. More positive are the results related to improved salaries and conditions of service and the existence of staff development programmes in the schools sampled.

The results in the statement with highest scores presented in the table was further analysed in terms of gender, age, position, and teaching experience.



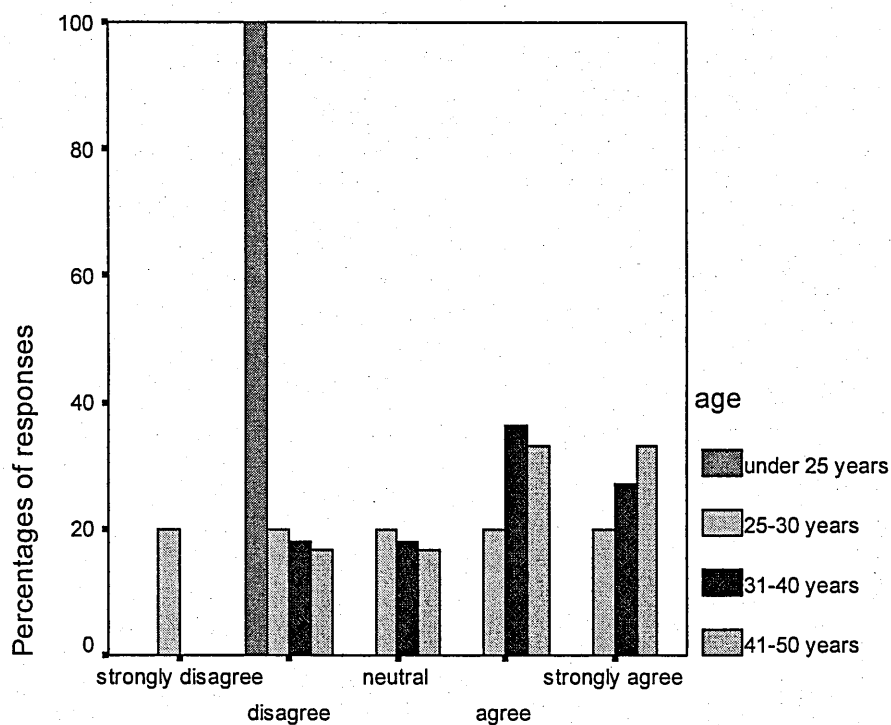
Male participants registered proportionately higher positive attitudes than female respondents, who recorded 9%. (See figure 16).

**Figure 16: Distribution of responses to the statement 'In our school all teachers have the opportunity to go for extra training to update themselves with recent trends, developments and practice in education' by gender**



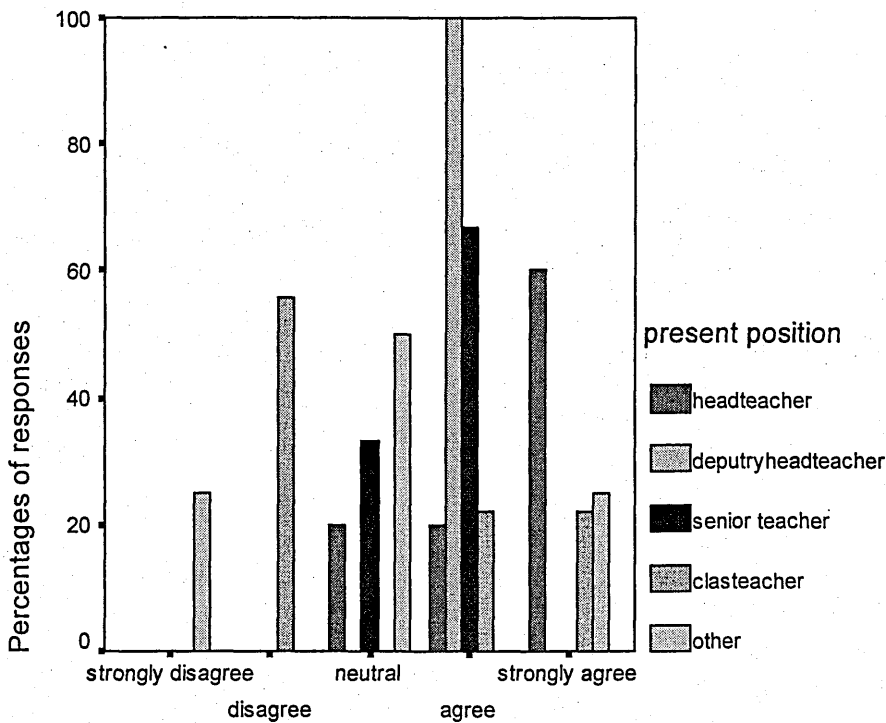
Teachers in the age range 31-40 years, indicated proportionately more positive responses to the statement, 'in our school, teachers have the opportunity to go for extra training to update themselves with the recent trends, developments, and practice in education. Less positive results were noted from both age ranges 25-30 and 41-50 years (See figure 17).

**Figure 17: Distribution of responses to the statement 'In our school all teachers have the opportunity to go for extra training to update themselves with recent trends, developments and practice in education' by age**



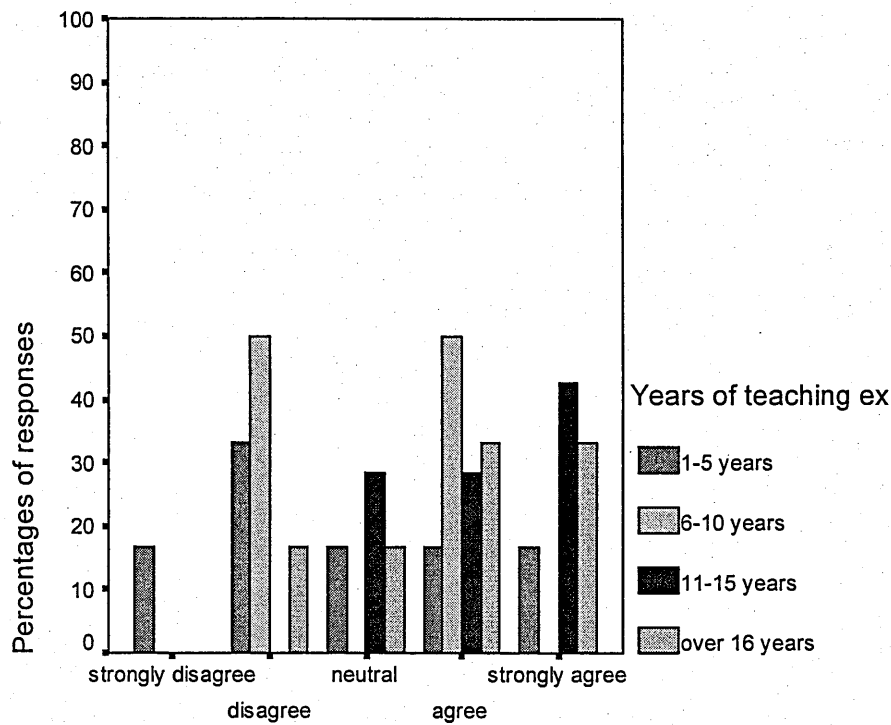
Class teachers scored proportionately more positive responses to the item 'In our school teachers have opportunity to go for extra training to update themselves with the recent trends, developments, and practice in education'. (See figure 18).

**Figure 18: Distribution of responses to statement 'In our school all teachers have opportunity to go for extra training to update themselves with recent trends, developments, and practice in education' by position**



As regards to teaching experience, teachers with teaching experience 11-15 years, registered most positive results to the item below, followed by 1-5 and 6-10 years of teaching experience. The least opportunities for training were from teachers with over 16 years teaching experience (See figure 19):

**Figure 19: Distribution of responses to the statement 'In our school all teachers have opportunity to go for extra training to update themselves with the recent trends, developments and practice in education' by teaching experience**



## **Discussion of the four themes**

Before discussing the four themes, it is important to emphasise the small sample size. Results have been compared in terms of percentages. However, in some cases 100% represents one single person. Therefore, we may be discussing possible differences which, although not significant in the pilot, may be worth exploring in the main study.

### **Gender**

Gender was not found to be related to attitudes. In all the four themes, there were no significant differences between gender groups in attitudes towards inclusion for children with disabilities. On average males scored 12(52%) in the four dimensions (See figures, 2, 6, 11 and 16). This is a rather interesting finding because ordinarily, one would expect females to have more positive attitudes towards children with disabilities than males because of their 'taken for granted' warm and caring attribute. Females are known to be both empathetic and sympathetic to children and in particular, disabled children (Tembo, 2002). In fact even research seems to have tended to bring out this positive image of females. Obani's (1982) study to determine the attitudes of Nigerian teachers towards children with disabilities found that females were more significantly more positive than males. In the present study, the lack of difference in attitudes between males and females could be due to the fact that the female sample was small. Secondly, in cultural terms, males are more exposed to different views because they often get the opportunity to mix with others outside their communities. Another reason for the lack of differences and men's exposure to different views could be that most respondents were males as SADC countries seem to send more male teachers for further training in the United Kingdom than female teachers (See figures 2, 6, 11 and 16).

## **Age**

Age was found to be related to attitudes towards the inclusion for children with disabilities in the general education classrooms. Overall, older participants tended to be more favourable towards inclusion than younger. However, the difference is not very high. Such a scenario is probably not surprising because older respondents have more experience in life than young ones. They have been exposed to more children with disabilities than young respondents. The more positive picture probably reflects reality more closely because for respondents who trained in the 1980s, their curriculum included aspects of special needs, and this could have had an effect on their attitudes. Whether this was the case in all teachers' training colleges is difficult to tell. In the current study, respondents in the age band 31-40 years recorded more positive attitudes followed by those in the age band 41-50 years. The least are those under 25 years.

## **Position**

Overall, all participants in the current study, irrespective of position, responded favourably towards inclusion for children with disabilities. This seems to indicate that participants are willing to work with pupils with disabilities. This finding is in agreement with earlier studies which examined primary teachers' attitudes towards inclusion for children with disabilities in general education classrooms (Weltzien, 1997) and is consistent with results from studies by Ndawi (1994) in Tanzania and Kasonde-Ng'andu & Moberg, (2001), in Zambia.

## **Teaching Experience**

The pilot study revealed that there may be a potential relationship between teaching experience and attitudes towards inclusion of children with disabilities. It was

found that participants with more years of teaching have more positive attitudes than those with fewer years. This is supported by Galis (1994) whose research indicates that teachers with more years of teaching experience have generally more positive attitudes about the potential of the inclusion for children with disabilities. Those with fewer years of teaching experience express lower support for inclusion for children with disabilities and are less positive about the practice and feasibility of inclusion. In this study, respondents with between 11-15 years of teaching experience indicated more favourable attitudes followed by those with over 16 years of teaching. The least positive were those with 6-10 years of teaching (See figures 5 and 9).

**Discussion of significant results**

Below follows discussion of results where the effects were significant.

Four variables were selected. I used a nonparametric test in order to calculate associations and differences because the sample was small (Dancey & Reidy, 2002). Table 20 indicates the means of responses to 'physically disabled pupils rights to education'.

**Table 20: Physically disabled pupils rights to education**

School setting	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
Rural	5.0	2	.00
Peri-urban	4.7	8	.5
Urban	3.8	13	.99
Total	4.2	23	.92

There is a significant difference between the responses. ( $p < .022$ , Kruskal Wallis test, two tailed). The most positive attitudes came from the rural category.

**Table 21: The staff are able to collaborate on educational issues**

School setting	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
Rural	1.5	2	.7
Peri-Urban	4.2	8	1
Urban	4.0	13	.8
Total	3.9	23	1.1

The participants who came from peri-urban schools strongly agree with the item that the staff are able to collaborate on educational issues. The lowest score came from the rural area (2 teachers). It was found that location in this study is related to staff collaboration on educational issues.

There is a significant difference between the three settings ( $p < .049$  Kruskal Wallis test, two tailed).

Such a result is not surprising because we expect the rural teachers to have less collaboration because there are few schools and they are very far apart from each other.

**Table 22: Teacher are provided with adequate time to plan**

Current position	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
1.00	4.4	5	0.9
2.00	4.0	1	
3.00	3.5	2	0.7
4.00	3.0	8	1.4
Total	3.5	16	1.3

The variable 'teachers are provided with adequate time to plan' and current position was divided into four categories: head-teacher, deputy head-teacher, senior teacher and teachers (1, 2, 3 and 4 respectively). The analysis seems to suggest that the higher the position the more likely respondents are to believe that teachers are provided adequate time to plan. On the other side the lower the education position the more teachers are likely to believe that it is important to be provided adequate time to plan.



This was a significant negative correlation ( $p = < 05$  level, 2-tailed, Pearson correlation).

Table 23 shows the correlation between variables 'present position' and 'are provided with adequate time to plan'.

**Table 23: Teachers are provided adequate time to plan**

		<b>Present position</b>	<b>teachers are provided adequate time to plan</b>
<b>Present position no other</b>	Pearson Correlation	1	-.510
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.043
	N	16	16
<b>teachers are provided adequate time to plan</b>	Pearson Correlation	-.510	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.043	
	N	16	23

**\* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).**

This suggests that head teachers are more likely to agree that teachers have adequate planning time, whereas class teachers are less likely to do so.

Table 24 shows main responses in relation to the statement 'our school has a policy...' (item 4).

**Table 24: Mean responses according to rating scale.**

<b>our school has policy</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>
strongly disagree	1.6	3	.57735
disagree	3.7	4	1.25831
neutral	3.5	4	.57735
agree	3.4	5	1.14018
strongly agree	4.2	7	1.11270
<b>Total</b>	<b>3.5</b>	<b>23</b>	<b>1.23838</b>

**The highest mean 4.2 score came from 'strongly agree' option. The lowest was recorded from 'strongly disagree'.**

There is significance correlation between answers to 'Our school has a policy by 'teachers are provided with adequate time to plan' and 'teachers are provided adequate time to plan (p < .05 levels, 2-tailed Pearson analysis). Schools with an inclusion policy are more likely to have teachers with time to plan. We know from the other analysis that it is the head-teachers who believe that teachers are given adequate time to plan and therefore promote policy.

**Table 25: Teachers are provided with adequate time to plan**

		our school has policy	teachers are provided adequate time to plan
our school has policy	Pearson Correlation	1	.518
	Sig. (2- tailed)	.	.011
	N	23	23
teachers are provided adequate time to plan	Pearson Correlation	.518	1
	Sig. (2- tailed)	.011	.
	N	23	23

**\* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).**

**Qualitative comments on questionnaire**

Some elements, which might be important to the study, would not have been captured by the closed questionnaire. As such the questionnaire was designed to leave room for such comments from the respondents.

The following is the catalogue of comments received from some respondents.

8 (35%) of the respondents commented on staff development and retraining. For example: 'staff development programmes should be initiated so that all general education teachers are retrained in methods that cut-across all children abilities';

6 (26%) expressed their views about inclusion. For example: 'Inclusive education was a new concept, and awareness educational campaign programmes should be mounted';

5 (22%) gave their opinion on infrastructure. For example: 'all the school buildings should be renovated and new

schools constructed to make them accessible by all pupils'; and

4 (17%) added no comments.

## Interviews

The purpose of piloting the questionnaire was to test the instrument and also test ways of analysing the data.

Findings therefore had to be presented and commented on in the pilot study. However, the purpose of piloting the interview schedule was solely to test the instrument.

Discussion and analysis of interview findings are therefore not appropriate in this section.

From the respondents feedback I was able make significant revisions. The majority of the 10 interviewees, (60%), said the questions were clear and to the point. However, they suggested rewording the schedule into three main questions and a set of prompts in order to make them more interactive. For example, question 1, *'May you please outline previous work experience'* (setting length of service and age of children) with ordinary and with children with disabilities. Please note if the setting was inclusive. Was re-worded to read: *'Tell me something about your teaching career, from the time you started, the grade and type of, children you have taught, their age range and any memorable experience you have had in your teaching?'* This was followed by a set of prompts to ensure that all respondents covered the same areas and were encouraged to talk in depth.

Some respondents suggested asking specifically about inclusive education and question 2 was worded to reflect this (see appendix 2). Again a series of prompts followed. A further question about inclusion in Zambia was introduced to reflect respondents' wishes to see a question about the national context (see appendix 2).

The respondents also indicated that there was a need to standardise the explanation about the objectives of the study. This would provide identical information to every interviewee. A written version of the explanation was recommended at the top of interview schedule which might be more practical. However, telling the interviewees about the study verbally would help start the interview.

The interview schedule as revised in light of the pilot is included in appendix 2.

The interview section marks the last part of the discussion of the research instruments. What follows next is discussion of the limitations of the study.

### **Limitations of the study**

According to the programme schedule, three months was apportioned for data collection exercise where I was intending to travel to Zambia. This did not materialise and instead, for this questionnaire, I relied on the sample of students from African English speaking countries who came for studies in England. Their stay in England was limited, because some were just concluding their studies while the Zambian team stayed for only three weeks. The initial arrangement for this activity was to have a lapse of one month, but it was limited to only two weeks. However, this item on the questionnaire was taken from existing reliable questionnaires, hence the high levels of reliability that were found here are unsurprising.

Initially, the sample size of the study was intended to be twenty five and purposive sampling technique was to be utilised. However, the sample was reduced to twenty-three, and a convenience sampling technique was applied. Having realised that the sample size was small, and non-probability sampling procedure of utilizing convenience technique, the results of the study cannot be generalised or externalised

to other respondents. Nevertheless, the results of this study achieved the intended goal.

## **Conclusion**

The objective of this pilot study was to refine the questionnaire and interview schedule and procedures.

Although respondents to the questionnaire were from the SADC countries they were professionals with sound education and with good teaching experience background. Besides their teaching experience, a good number of participants had knowledge about current trends and practices in education, and their feedback helped me to refine the questions in both the questionnaire and interview schedule.

Respondents to the questionnaire were from the SADC region. Looking at the findings in general, the respondents registered agreement with inclusive education.

Although this study was small scale, the results are consistent with the findings of similar research carried out previously in the SADC region as well as other countries.

## ***Lessons learnt for the main study***

The reliability ratings on the questionnaire items were very high. However, the list of items was revised, and the number of items was reduced.

The interview schedule in the main study was revised to be more interactive, in order to provide deeper understanding of the meaning of inclusive education and teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education in Zambia. This was achieved by including prompts for each question.

Despite the pilot study being conducted largely in the UK, with a different cultural background, the sample was similar to that to be subsequently studied in Zambia in many characteristics. Instruments can be piloted in another

country using convenience sampling but can still work in a different environment as long as the sample is close to that of the main study to include teachers with knowledge of current trends and practice in the education sector.

Zambia is a very large country with 72 tribal groups. Centres for research needed to represent a broad band of tribal groups of the country in order to elicit a variety of responses from a wide selection of teachers who come from diverse cultural backgrounds.

This pilot used a convenience sampling approach in data collection, while the main study utilised a purposive sampling paradigm. The pilot suggested a need to be careful when selecting the sample for the main study to include teachers with knowledge of current trends and practice in the education sector.



## **Chapter 6    Main study findings**

The purpose of this study was to investigate teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education in Zambia. Chapter 5 reports on the results of the main study. This chapter comprises the following:

- Introduction
- Research Centres
- The Population Sample
- Instruments and Data Collection
- Descriptive statistics
- Quantitative Data Analysis
- Qualitative Data Analysis
- Summary

### **Research centres**

Because it was not possible to take a complete cross-section of schools in Zambia that had experience of inclusion, two schools were selected (Woodlands 'A' Basic and Mwashhi Basic Schools). Both schools are government owned and operated as day schools. Lusaka was selected because it is highly urbanized, cosmopolitan, and multi-tribal. Kabwe is also an urban setting, being a provincial headquarters, and thus was an appropriate choice for the study.

### **The population sample**

The target population for this study was all teachers working in Zambian schools with experience of inclusion. The sample was drawn from the 130 full-time employed teachers, 30 from Woodlands 'A' Basic and 30 from Mwashhi Basic Schools. All the teachers sampled in this study were employees of the Teaching Service Commission (TSC). Of the 60 respondents sampled 49 (82%) were female, while 11 (18%)

were male. This is representative of the teaching force in Zambia which is dominated by women especially in urban areas where this sample was drawn.

95% of the teachers taught general education in the two schools, and only 5% taught special education. The grades taught by the teachers ranged from pre-school to grade 9 in a variety of different subject areas.

The level of education in the sample varied: approximately 75% had training in primary education, 12% in Secondary education, and another 13% in ordinary and special education, 12% had a Bachelor's degree and 10% had other qualifications not itemized in the questionnaire.

42% of the sampled teachers had taught for over 15 years, while more than half of the respondents had been teaching between 1 and 15 years, 2% had less than a year experience in teaching career and 10% were approaching the end of their teaching career, with 30 or more years of experience. 52% of the sample taught in an inclusive setting and 48% were not. The ages of the teachers in the sample varied from 21 years old to 60 years old and were evenly distributed within this range. All the teachers had attended various INSET programmes ranging from course work to audio and distance education in order to update themselves with the current trends and practice in education. 37% were teaching in an inclusive setting, and 63% were not. Pupil-teacher ratios were high. Approximately 87% taught classes of between 41 and 60 pupils per teacher.

## **Descriptive statistics**

Since attitudes are very difficult to assess, both quantitative and qualitative methods were deemed suitable for the study. Self administered questionnaires and open-ended personal interviews were used.

Included in appendix 4 is a frequency table of findings from the questionnaire survey. The frequency tables of results show that:

a) Theme 1

- most respondents (65%) were broadly in favour of all pupils being educated in general education classrooms as far as possible.
- most respondents (80%) felt that all class teachers should be responsible for the education of all pupils in their classrooms, including those with disabilities.
- most thought all academic expectations should be the same for all pupils (58.4%).
- most considered that curricula for inclusion should be flexible
- most (91.7%) felt class sizes should be reduced to promote inclusion of children with disabilities.

b) Theme 2

- the overwhelming majority (98.4%) supported the view that education is a fundamental right for all children.
- most (80%) thought physically disabled pupils have a right to education in mainstream classrooms.
- slightly over half (52%) felt intellectually impaired pupils have a right to education in mainstream classrooms
- slightly over half (53.3%) thought visually impaired pupils do **not** have the right to education in mainstream classrooms.
- two thirds (66.7%) considered learning impaired pupils do **not** have a right to education in mainstream classrooms.

c) Theme 3

- most had no experience of teaching pupils with visual or hearing impairments or with disabilities in mainstream classrooms (66.7%, 70% and 51.7% respectively)
- slightly over half had experience of pupils with physical or intellectual impairments (53.4% and 58.3% respectively).
- the overwhelming majority felt all pupils were made to feel welcome in general education classrooms in their schools
- slightly over half (51.7%) believed themselves to be successful in meeting diverse needs in their classrooms.

d) Theme 4

- less than one quarter felt their schools had adequate resources to meet pupils' needs or that all teachers had the opportunity for extra training (23.3% and 23.3%)
- slightly over half thought teachers had adequate time to plan adequately for all pupils.

## **Quantitative data analysis**

### *Data analysis technique*

I adopted a selective approach to the analysis of quantitative attitudinal data and chose to focus on the statements which could be seen as representative of the themes in which they were included, in order to gauge the attitudes of teachers towards the inclusion of pupils with disabilities in the general education classrooms. Two statements were selected from section 2 and five from section 3 of the questionnaire to represent themes 1 and 2. In section 2 (theme 1), the statements were:-

- 'All pupils should be educated in the general education classrooms to the greatest extent possible' and
- 'All class teachers should have the primary responsibility for the education of all pupils including those with disabilities in their classrooms'.

In section 3 (theme 2):-

- 'Education is a fundamental right for all children including those with disabilities';
- 'Physically disabled pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms';
- 'Intellectually impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms';
- 'Visually impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms' and
- 'Hearing impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms'.

Previous studies have sometimes indicated a relationship between demographic factors or experience and attitudes to inclusion in the mainstream (see literature review above). The data relating to the seven chosen statements were therefore cross-referred with data relating to demographic information and with data relating to experience statements in theme 3 to see if similar relationships could be seen in this study also.

Quantitative data employed descriptive statistics, the Kruskal Wallis and Mann-Whitney tests of difference. The Kruskal Wallis non-parametric test was used to compare three or more independent groups. Mann-Whitney is also a non-parametric test used to compare two independent groups. The two approaches were used because the data did not meet the assumptions required for parametric analysis to be employed

(Dancey & Reidy, 2002). Calculations are included in appendix 5.

Qualitative data was analysed line by line, labelling the data according to various themes emerging on how education should be, attitudes to disability and pupils' rights, how education is, and factors hindering the promotion of inclusive education. Themes that were most common from the various statements made by interviewee then formed the basis of the findings.

### *The role of position*

According to literature reviewed in this study, the position the teacher holds may have a bearing on attitudes towards pupils with disabilities and inclusion. Galis (1994) and Tembo (2002) found in their studies, that Head-teachers and Deputy Head-teachers scored more positive attitudes (85%) and (90%) respectively towards pupils with disabilities and inclusion in the general education classrooms than did senior and class teachers (67%) and (72%) respectively. This seems to echo some findings of previous studies carried out in other parts of the world (e.g. Giangreco & Putnam, 1991; Kauffman, 1993).

Position is important in the process of inclusion because many researchers (e.g. Ayles & Meyer 1992; Galis, 1994) acknowledge that position influences attitudes. For example, class teachers are at the implementation end of inclusion and directly in contact with the pupils. As such they are expected to accept the pupils if inclusion is to be achieved. Therefore there is a link between position and attitudes. Positive attitudes of professionals may influence the success of any project including the inclusion for pupils with disabilities. The table below shows the breakdown of the questionnaire sample:

In analysis of quantitative data, it should be noted that the terms 'respondents' and 'participants' are used interchangeably referring to the population involved. Another thing that should be noted is that in describing positiveness, 'agree' and 'strongly agree' have been amalgamated in all quantitative analysis.

Figure 1: Breakdown of questionnaire sample by position

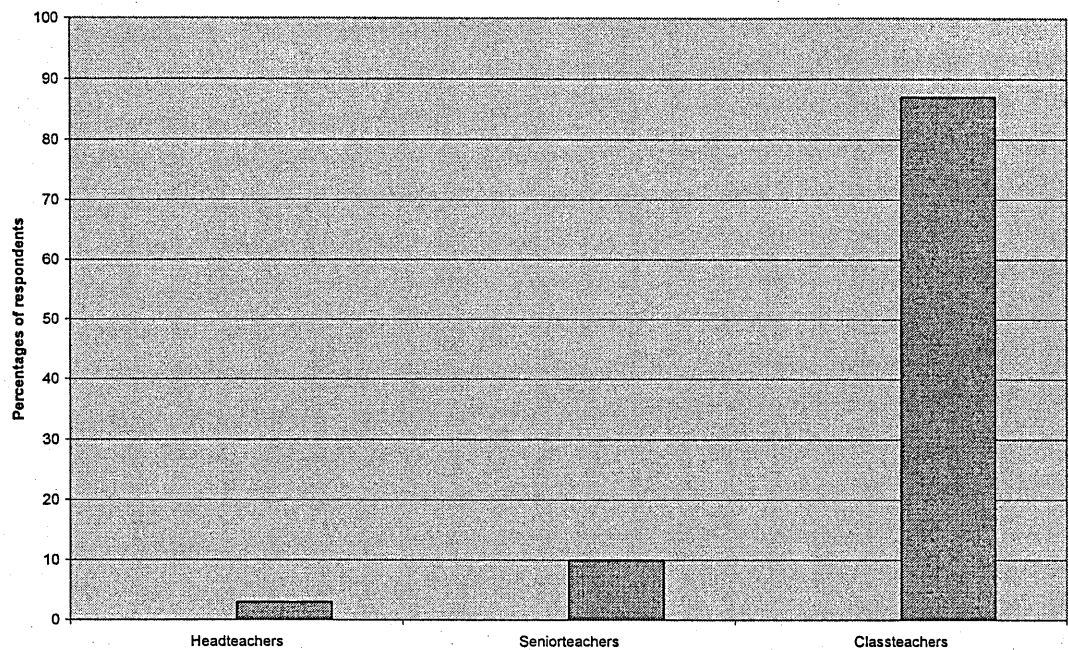


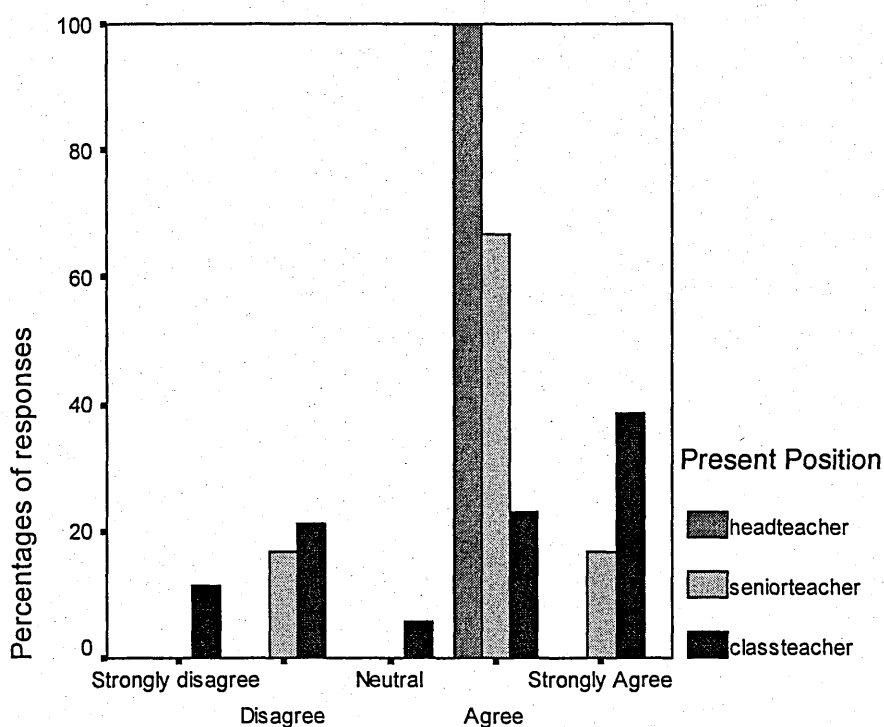
Figure 1 shows that more class teachers participated in the study than head-teachers and senior teachers. This can be explained since there are more teachers in schools than head-teacher and senior teachers.

Having shown the distribution of the sample involved in quantitative attitudinal data, what follows is the analysis of data according to position.



For the attitude statement 'all pupils should be educated in the general education classrooms to the greatest extent possible', head-teachers and senior-teachers and class teachers were more positive than negative, with head-teachers scored (100%), senior teachers agreeing or strongly agreeing. Class teachers were divided in their views. See Figure 2.

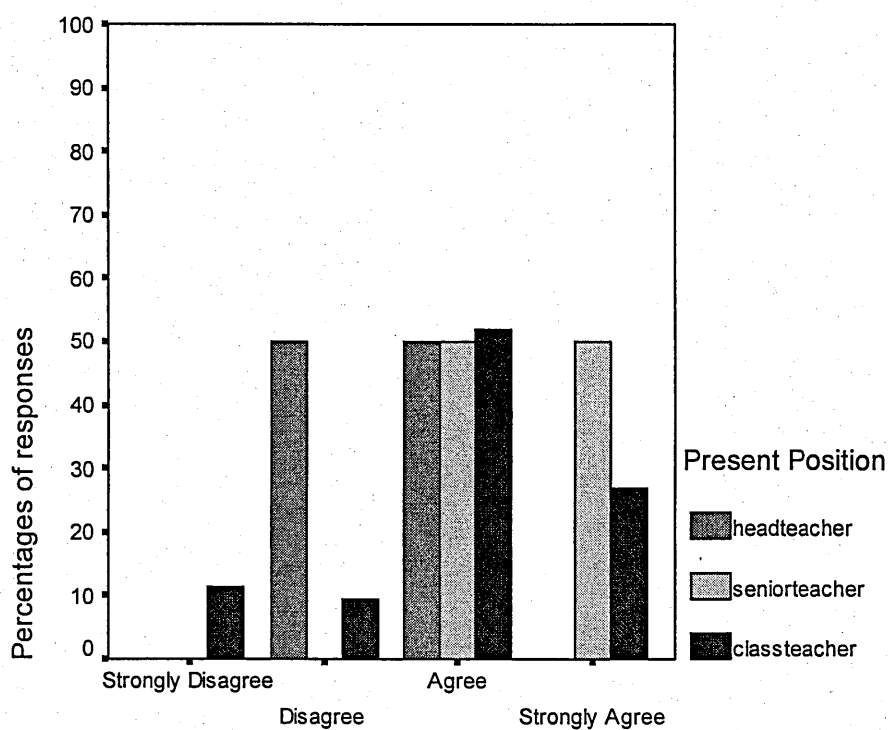
Figure 2: Distribution by position of responses to statement 'all pupils should be educated in the general education classrooms to the greatest extent possible'



In the Kruskal Wallis test for the attitude statement, 'all pupils should be educated in the general education classrooms to the greatest extent possible', there was no significant difference between the three status groups ( $p = 0.999$ ).

For the attitude statement 'all class teachers should have the primary responsibility for the education of all pupils including those with disabilities in their classrooms', senior teachers registered proportionately more positive responses, followed by class teachers. The least positive attitude results were from head-teachers. See Figure 3.

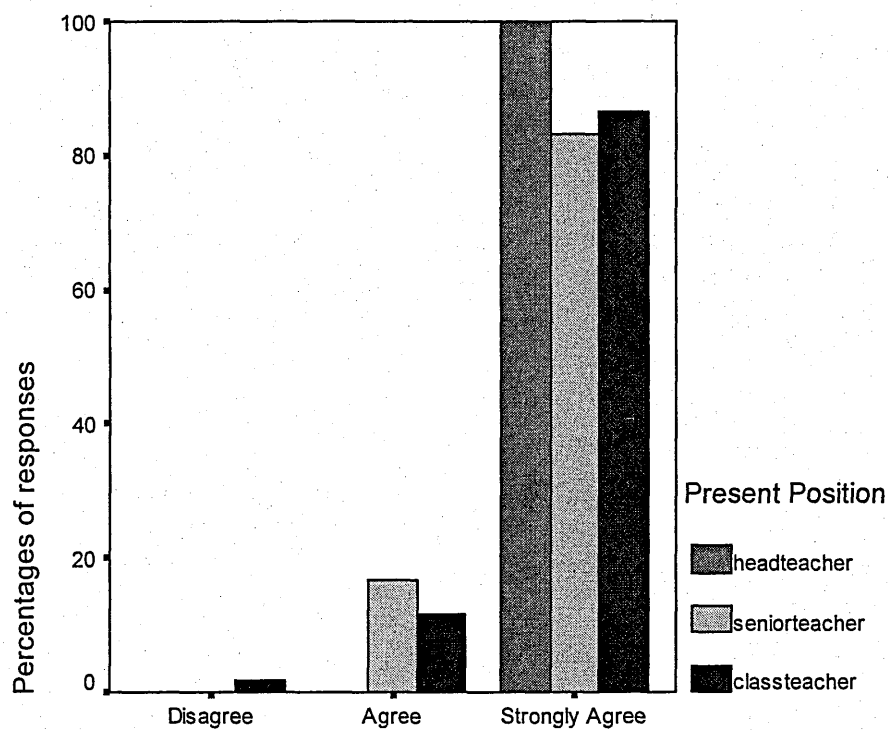
Figure 3: Distribution by position of responses to statement 'all class teachers should have the primary responsibility for the education of all pupils including those with disabilities in their classrooms'



In the Kruskal Wallis test the results indicate that there was no significant difference between the three positions, head-teachers, senior teachers and class teachers ( $p = 0.193$ ).

For the attitude statement 'education is a fundamental right for all children including those with disabilities'; head-teachers were strongly positive as were the majority of senior teachers and class teachers. Interestingly, head-teachers, senior teachers and class teachers all agree except 1.6% of class teachers. Although head-teachers scored 100% positive responses, they were only 2 in number. See Figure 4.

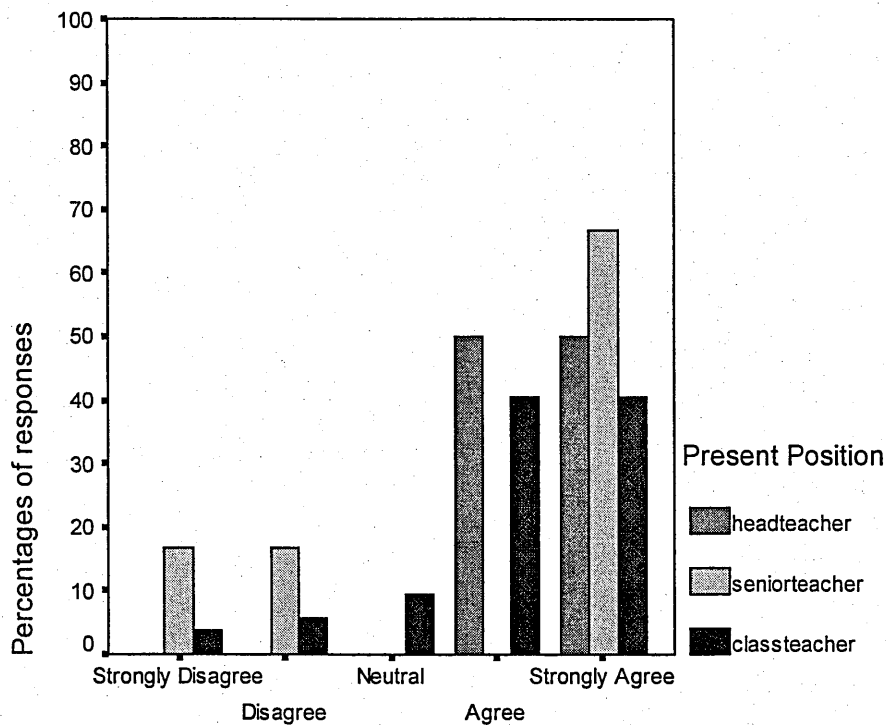
Figure 4: Distribution by position of responses to statement 'education is a fundamental right to all children including those with disabilities'



In the Kruskal Wallis test the results indicated no significant difference between the three groups ( $p = 0.839$ ).

For the attitude statement 'Physically disabled pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms', head-teachers reflected proportionately more positive responses followed by class teachers. See Figure 5.

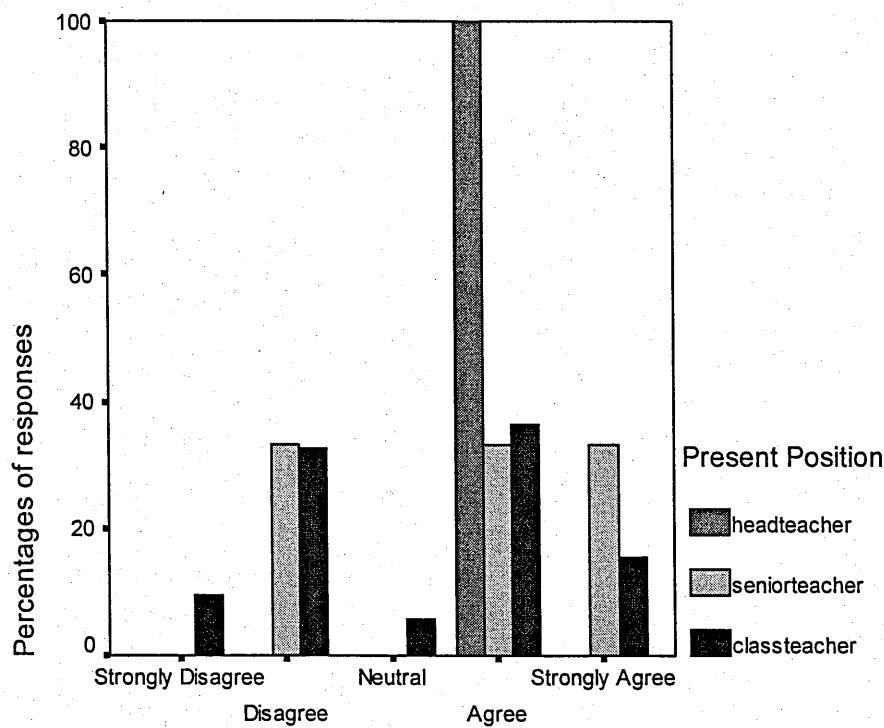
Figure 5: Distribution by position of responses to statement 'physically disabled pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms'



In the Kruskal Wallis test of difference the results indicated no significant difference between the three groups ( $p = 0.833$ ).

For the attitude statement, 'intellectually impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms', proportionately more head-teachers exhibited more positive responses, although they were only 2 in number. Senior teachers and class teachers tended to be divided on the issue. The least positive attitudes came from the class teachers. See Figure 6.

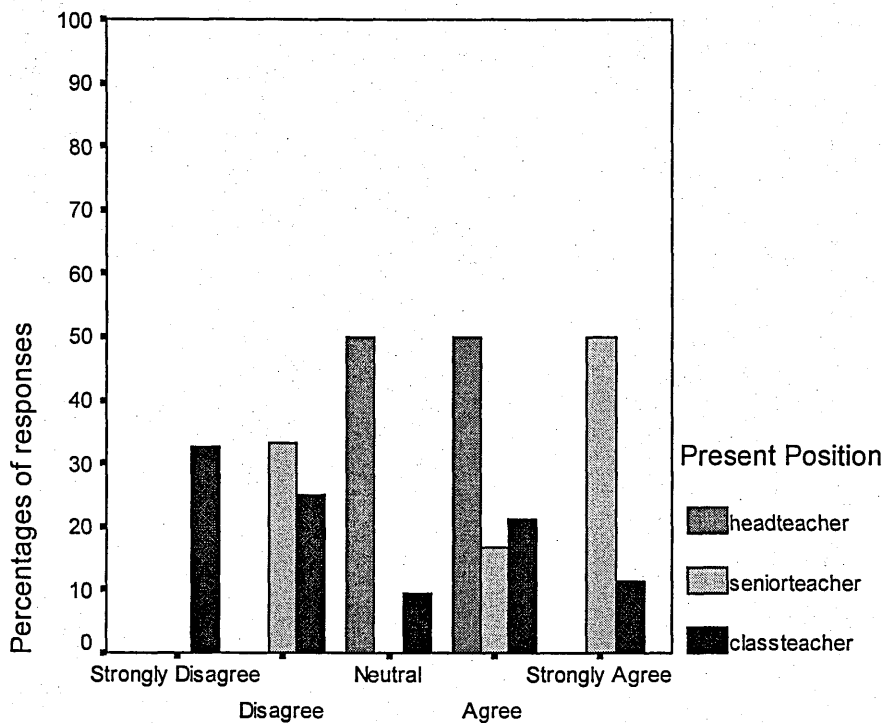
Figure 6: Distribution by position of responses to statement 'intellectually impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms'



In the Kruskal Wallis test of difference the results indicated no significant difference between the three positions ( $p = 0.473$ ).

For the attitude statement 'visually impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms', there was a greater variety of responses. Some teachers strongly disagreed with the idea. 50% of head-teachers remained neutral on the statement. Proportionately more head-teachers and senior-teachers recorded more positive responses than class teachers who only scored approximately 35% positive responses. This is apparent in Figure 7.

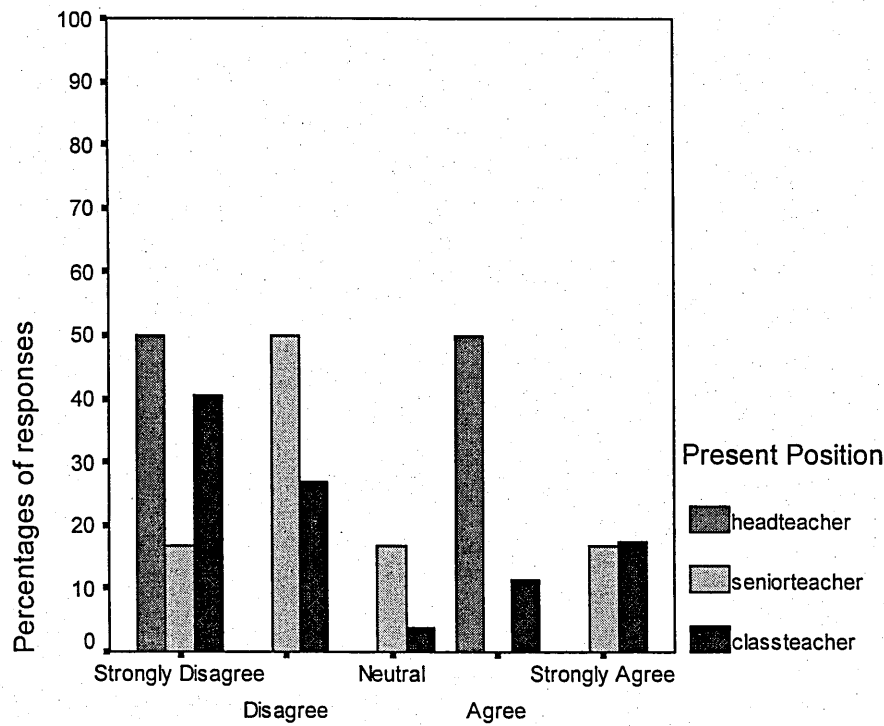
Figure 7: Distribution by position of responses to statement 'visually impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms'



In the Kruskal Wallis test the results would show a significant difference if it was conducted at 10% level. But at 5% level, there was no significant difference between the three groups ( $p = 0.082$ ).

For the attitude statement 'hearing impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms', a variety of responses was noted. 50% of the head-teachers strongly disagreed with the statement, and 50% of the head-teachers had a positive response. Of the senior teachers approximately 68% disagreed and strongly disagreed. They scored only 18% positive responses. While approximately 70% of the class teachers disagreed and strongly disagreed to the statement. They scored approximately 35% positive responses to the statement. See Figure 8.

Figure 8: Distribution by position of responses to statement 'hearing impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms'



In the Kruskal Wallis test of difference the results reveal no significant difference between the three status groups ( $p = 0.844$ ).

### Summary

An attempt to compare the attitudes of head-teachers, senior teachers and class teachers was made in all attitude

statements. The Kruskal Wallis test of difference was conducted. The findings indicate no significant difference between head-teachers, senior teachers and class teachers in terms of attitudes towards the inclusion of pupils with disabilities in the general education classrooms in all the seven attitudes statements.

The sample size for this attitude was 60 drawn from two schools of urban settings. In the sample 3% were head-teachers, 10% were senior teachers and 87% were class teachers. All head-teachers were males while all senior teachers were females.

The results reveal that head-teachers (2 in number) registered proportionately more positive responses than the senior teachers and class teachers. All the head-teachers responded positively to four of the seven attitude statements. Although the head-teachers were more positive they were only 2 in number. The senior teachers expressed their opinions they were mixed in their responses. They tended to support the inclusion of certain disabilities.

Although each status group made its choices regarding each disability group to be included in the general education classrooms, there was variation in status group regarding each type of disability. They were only less positive to some attitude statements.

In relation to the attitude statement *education is a fundamental right for all children including those with disabilities*'; there was overwhelming agreement from all groups.

It is surprising to note that teachers believe in the principle of inclusion but when it comes to the inclusion of specific disability, there is a huge difference between principle and practice. In particular the attitude of all



groups towards including children with hearing impairments tended to be negative.

The findings of this section do not support the findings of previous studies conducted (McAneny, 1992; Millar, 1996).

The two authors conducted studies investigating attitudes and inclusion in USA and Canada respectively. The findings indicated head-teachers scoring more positive responses towards the inclusion of pupils with disabilities in the general education classrooms than deputy-teachers, senior teachers and class teachers.

What comes next is the analysis of the seven attitude statements according to training.

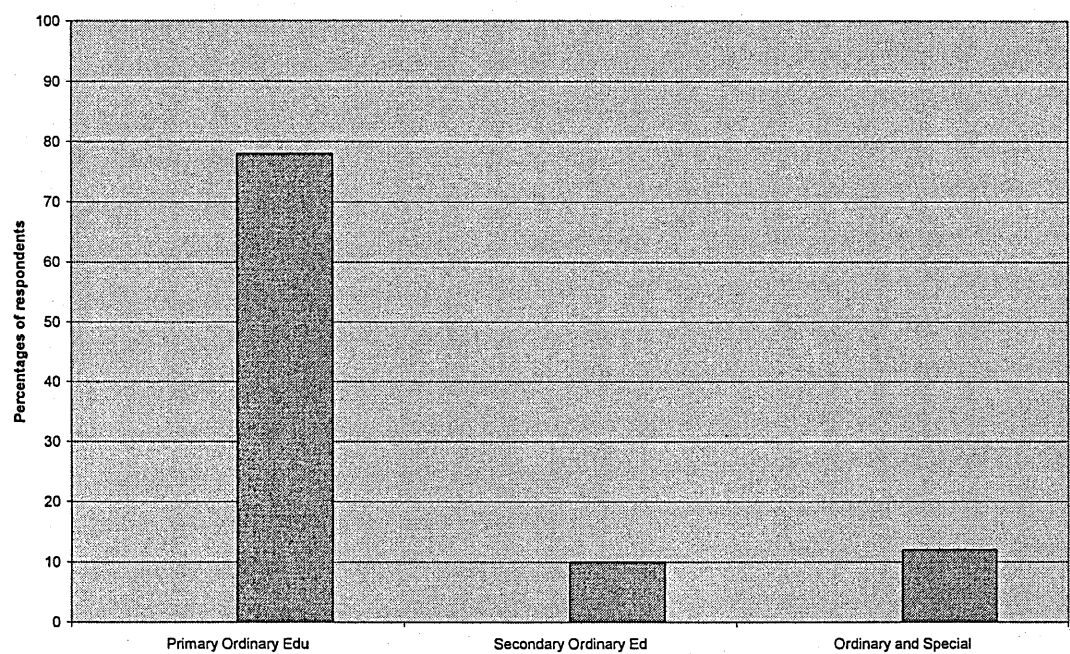
### *The role of training*

Training plays an important role in the development of human resources in education. According to literature reviewed, the training professionals go through in the process of socializing their teaching roles may have an influence on attitudes towards pupils with disabilities in the general education classrooms. Studies conducted by McAneny (1992) and Weltzien (1997) in Canada and USA respectively, indicate that teachers who have undertaken both ordinary and special education training are likely to register more positive attitudes towards pupils with disabilities and inclusion than those with most primary or secondary ordinary training.

Training is about increasing knowledge and skills in production or provision of services and increasing confidence. Training enhances practice in the way we produce and provide services and behave towards others. In teaching, for example, training is considered as a pre-condition for a person attaining the status of a teacher and consequently performing the different roles associated with his/her status. This section analyses attitudes in relation to training.

The total of 60 participants had gone through various training courses for them to be teachers. Of the sample 78% acquired primary ordinary training. Approximately 10% had secondary ordinary training and another 12% had both ordinary and special education training. See Figure 9.

Figure 9: Breakdown of questionnaire sample by training



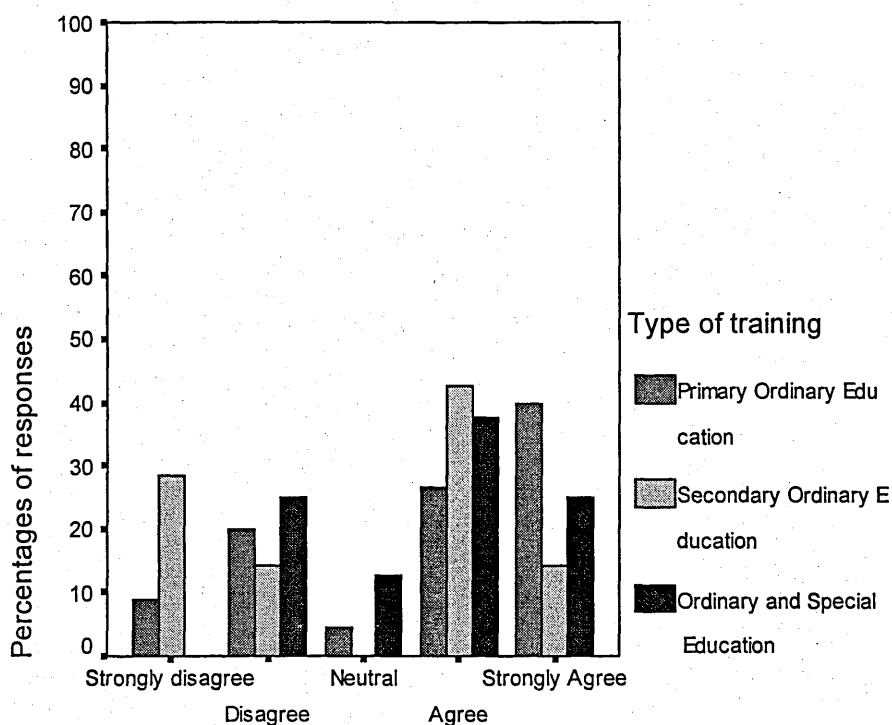
The two sampled schools were just upgraded some three years ago to the status of basic to allow them to offer education from grade one to junior secondary.

Having shown the pattern of training among the participants, what follows is the analysis of results according to this training.

The same seven attitude statements were selected and analysed according to the training dimension.

For the attitude statement 'all pupils should be educated in the general education classrooms to the greatest extent possible', proportionately more teachers with primary ordinary training scored more positive responses than those with secondary ordinary and with both ordinary and special education training. The least positive responses were recorded from participants with secondary ordinary training. See Figure 10.

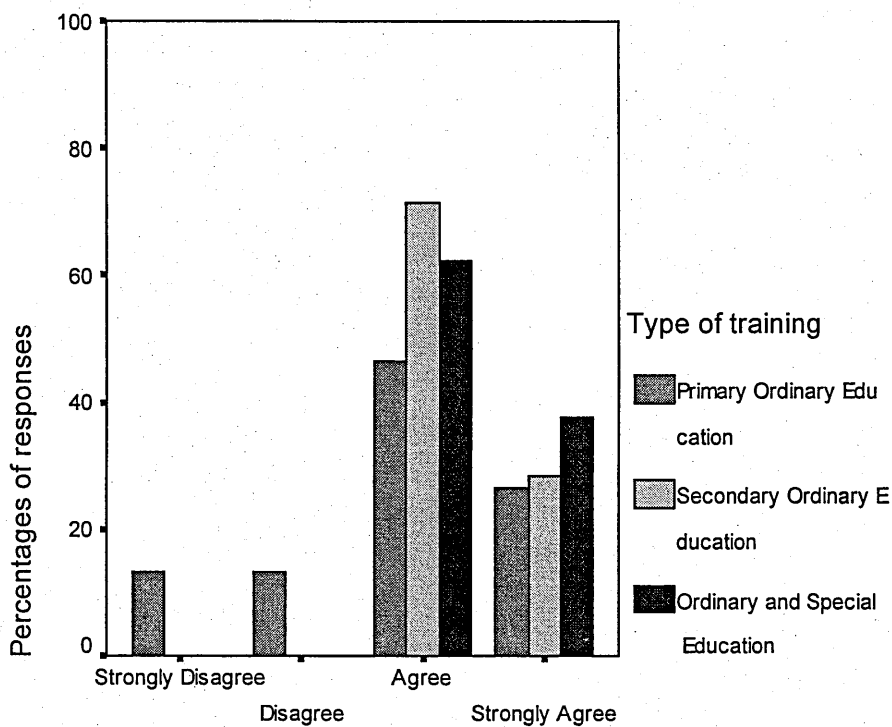
Figure 10: Distribution by training of responses to statement 'all pupils should be educated in the general education classrooms to the greatest extent possible'



In the Kruskal Wallis test of difference by training types findings revealed no significant difference ( $p = 0.452$ ).

For the attitude statement 'all class teachers should have the primary responsibility for the education of all pupils including those with disabilities in their classrooms' all participants in all training groups registered more positive responses than those with primary ordinary training. The least favourable responses were noted from participants with primary ordinary training. See Figure 11.

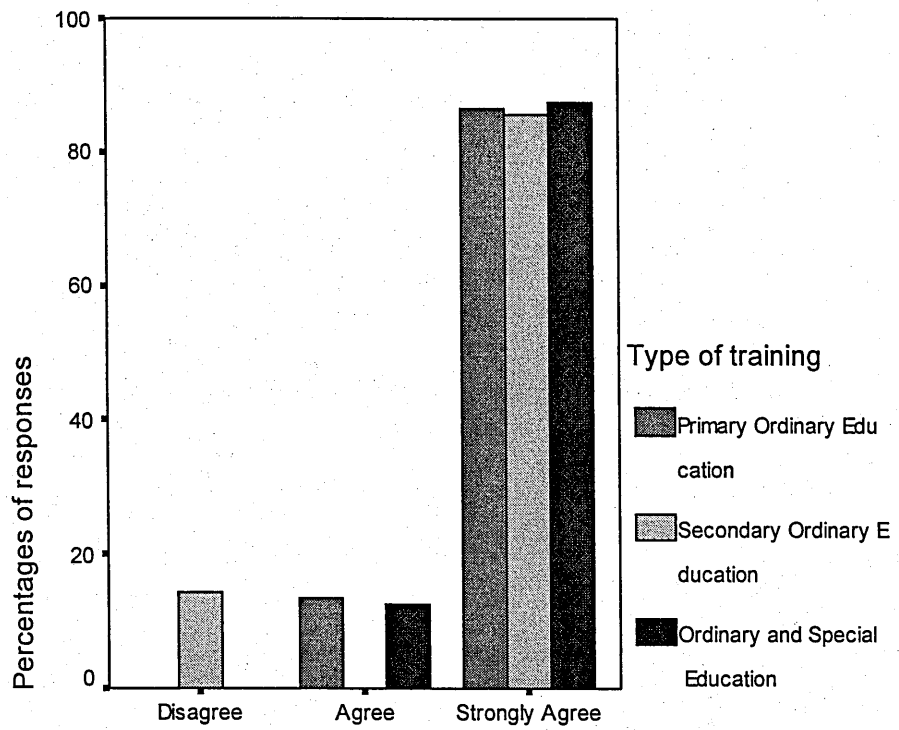
Figure 11: Distribution by training of responses to the statement 'all class teachers should have the primary responsibility for the education of all pupils including those with disabilities in their classrooms'



In the Kruskal Wallis test of difference by training types the findings indicated no significant difference between the three types of types of training ( $p = 0.296$ ).

For the attitude statement 'education is a fundamental right for all children including those with disabilities' teachers with both ordinary and special education training indicated more positive responses than those participants with primary and secondary ordinary training. See Figure 12.

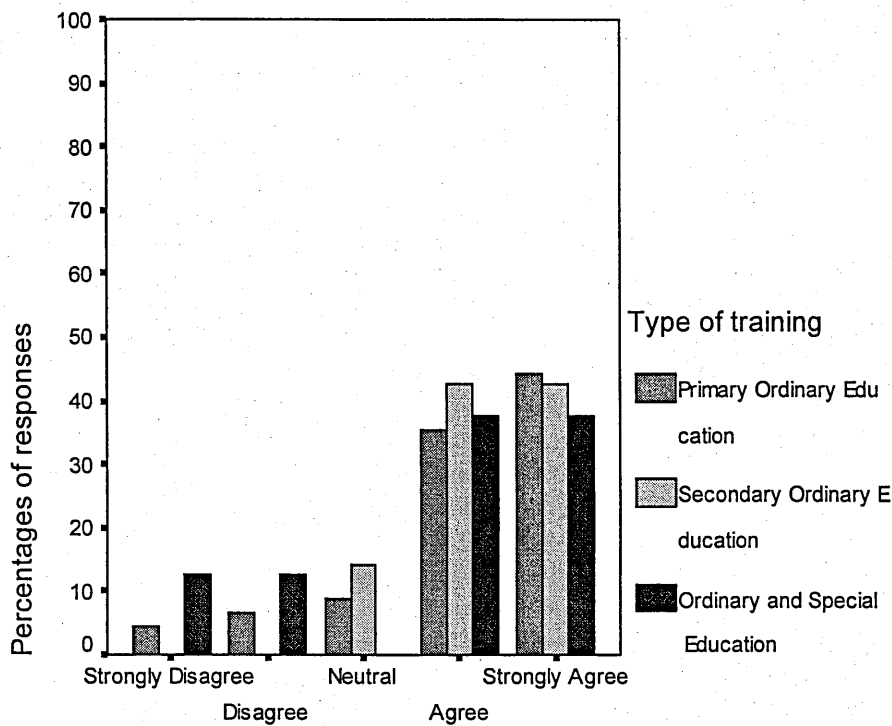
Figure 12: Distribution by training of responses to statement 'education is a fundamental right for all children including those with disabilities'



In the Kruskal Wallis test of difference by training types the findings revealed no significant difference between the three types of training ( $p = 0.975$ ).

For the attitude statement 'physically disabled pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms', all the participants favourably supported the item, although some isolated cases fell on the negative side. See Figure 13.

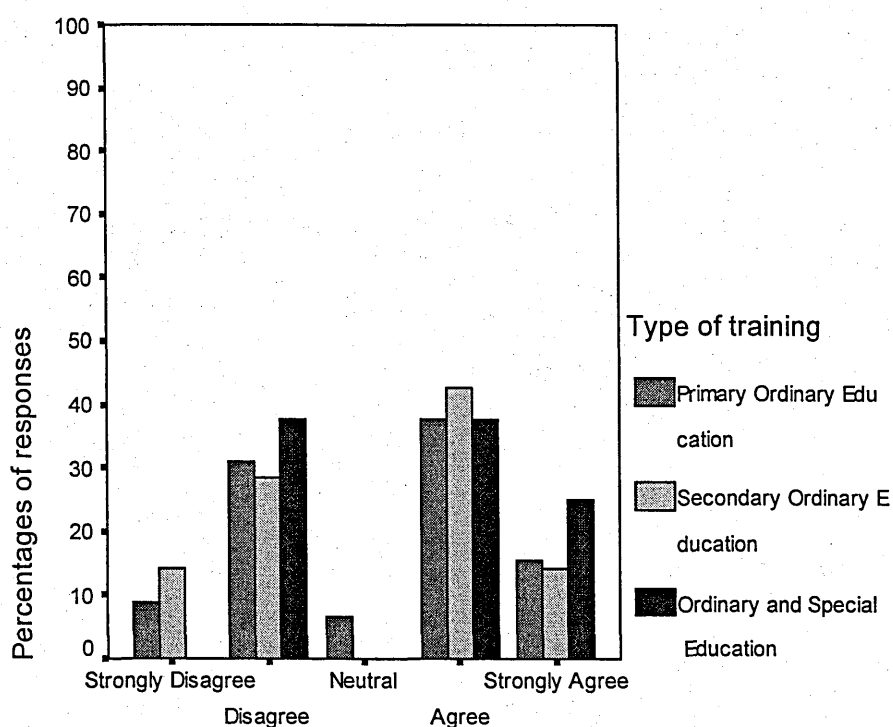
Figure 13: Distribution by training of responses to statement 'physically disabled pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms'



In the finding of the Kruskal Wallis test the findings revealed no significant difference ( $p = 0.850$ ).

For the attitude statement, 'intellectually impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms', teachers with both ordinary and special education training registered more positive responses item. See Figure 14.

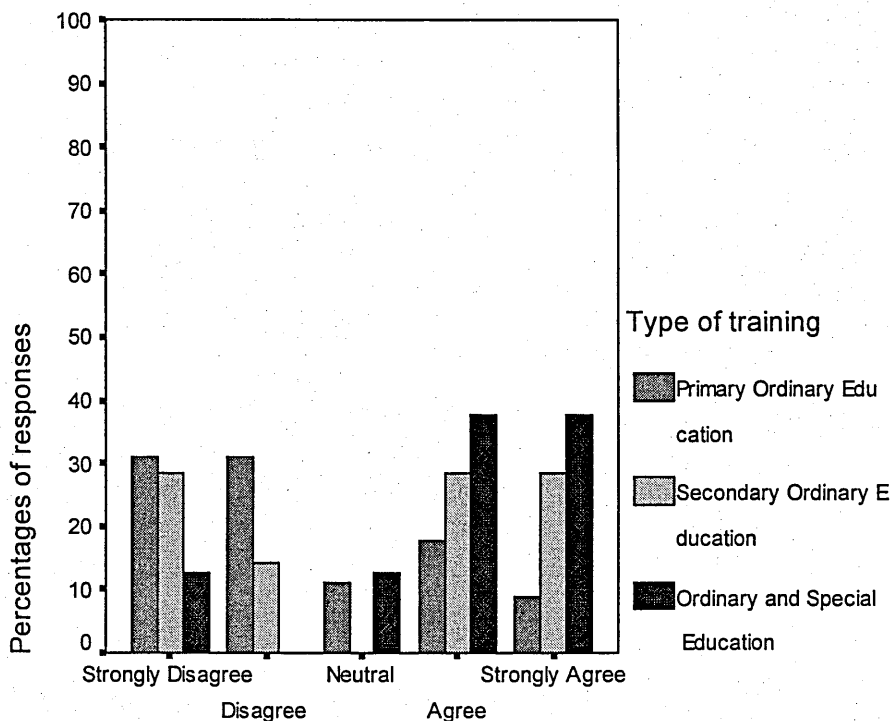
Figure 14: Distribution by training of responses to statement 'intellectually impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms'



In the Kruskal Wallis test of difference by training types was conducted for this attitude statement 'intellectually impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms', the findings indicated no significant difference between the three types of training ( $p = 0.799$ ).

For the attitude statement, 'visually impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms' proportionately more teachers with both ordinary and special education training scored more positive responses than those with primary and secondary ordinary training. One interesting thing about inclusion of pupils with visual impairments is that participants with primary ordinary training were negative, while participants with ordinary and special education training were strongly positive. The differences were really marked as seen in the statistics. See Figure 15.

Figure 15: Distribution by training of responses to statement 'visually impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms' by training



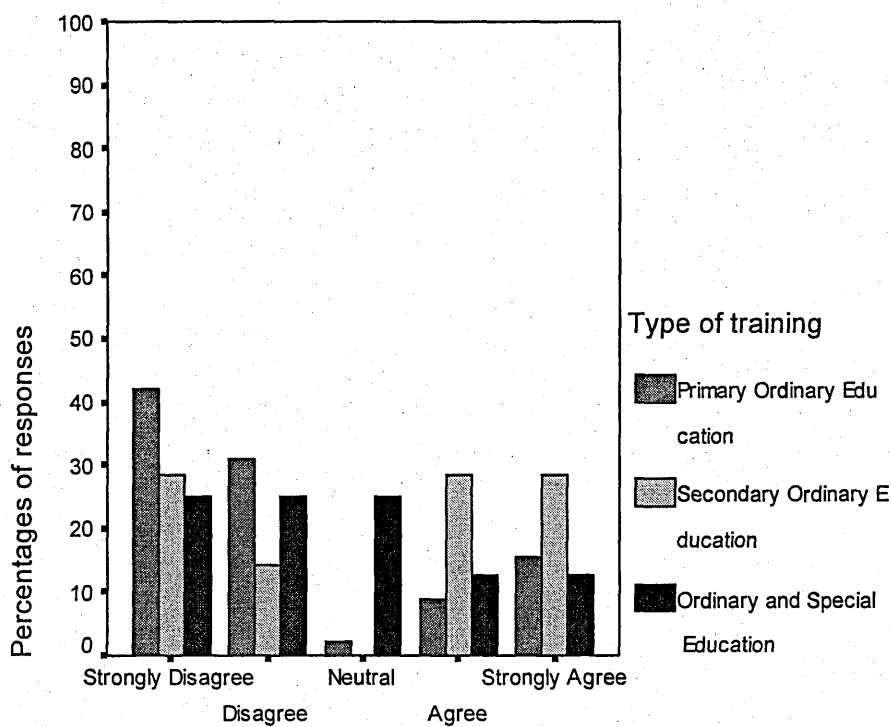
In the Kruskal Wallis test of difference by training the findings indicated significant difference ( $p = 0.038$ ).



For the attitude statement 'hearing impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms' proportionately more teachers with secondary ordinary training indicated more positive responses than those with primary ordinary and those with both ordinary and special education training. See Figure 16.

A multiple comparisons between treatments analysis was undertaken which revealed a significant difference ( $p \geq 0.05$ ) for the secondary ordinary education in comparison to the other two training groups. This illustrated in the box plot in appendix 6.

Figure 16: Distribution by training of responses to statement 'hearing impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms'



In the Kruskal Wallis test of difference by training the findings revealed no significant difference between the three types of training ( $p = 0.358$ ).

## Summary

The Kruskal Wallis test of difference was used to find out whether there was a significant difference between the three types of training in some attitude statements. The findings generally indicated no significant difference between the types of training. There was only significant difference noted between the three types of training and the statement '*visually impaired pupils have the right to be education in the general education classrooms*' ( $p = 0.038$ , Kruskal Wallis test). Participants with ordinary and special education training were more positive while participants with primary ordinary training were more negative in this statement.

A variety of opinions regarding the inclusion of pupils with disabilities were expressed. Teachers supported the principle of inclusion '*Education is a fundamental right for all children including those with disabilities*', (See Figure, 4), but are less supportive of the inclusion of individual disabilities. For example, teachers responded favourably to the inclusion of pupils with physical impairment although some cases fell in the negative grid. But there seem to be a proportional spread of teachers' opinions when it comes to the inclusion of children with '*Intellectual, Visual and Hearing impairments*' (See Figures, 6, 7 and 8).

Participants with primary ordinary training were in agreement with the idea that '*all pupils should be educated in the general education classrooms to the greatest extent possible*'. But some were not in agreement that '*all class teachers should have the primary responsibility for the education of all pupils including those with disabilities in their classrooms*' and '*education is a fundamental right for all children including those with disabilities*'. They did not always support the inclusion of pupils with physical, intellectual, visual and hearing impairments.

Literature reviewed in this study indicates that training is supposed to make a difference to attitudes of teachers towards the inclusion of children with disabilities in the general education classrooms, but it is surprising to note that it is not the case in the present study. While teachers overwhelmingly agree that 'Education is a fundamental right for all children including those with disabilities' (See Figure, 12), a large proportion of senior teachers and class teachers fall in the negative grid when it comes to inclusion of children with intellectual, visual, and hearing impairments (See Figures, 14, 15 and 16).

All participants with secondary ordinary training were in agreement that *'all teachers should have the primary responsibility for the education of all pupils including those with disabilities'*. Proportionately more supported the inclusion of pupils with physical and hearing impairments in the general education classrooms than disagreed. All supported *'education is a fundamental right for all children including those with disabilities'*. However, some of this status group rejected the inclusion of pupils with intellectual and visual impairments in the general education classrooms.

Participants with ordinary and special education training registered their agreement that *'all teachers should have the primary responsibility for the education of all pupils in their classrooms'*. They mostly supported the inclusion of pupils with visual impairments in the general education classrooms. There was greater difference of opinion regarding pupils with intellectual impairments. Most agreed that *'all pupils should be educated in the general education classrooms to the greatest extent possible'* and all agreed that *'education is a fundamental right for all children including those with disabilities.'* A large proportion reject the inclusion of pupils with intellectual

impairments. There could be many factors involved in these negative responses. One could be that participants with primary ordinary education have no experience regarding pupils with intellectual impairments or it could be attributed to lack of awareness of the practical aspects of including children with intellectual impairments.

For those trained in ordinary and special education a large majority agree with the inclusion of children with visual impairments.

Overall, participants with both ordinary and special education were more positive in that they scored high positive responses in four of the statements. This supports the previous studies findings on attitudes and inclusion conducted in other parts of the world (Arrington, 1992; Galis, 1994).

No attitude statement in this section was totally rejected by type of training, although low positive scores were noted.

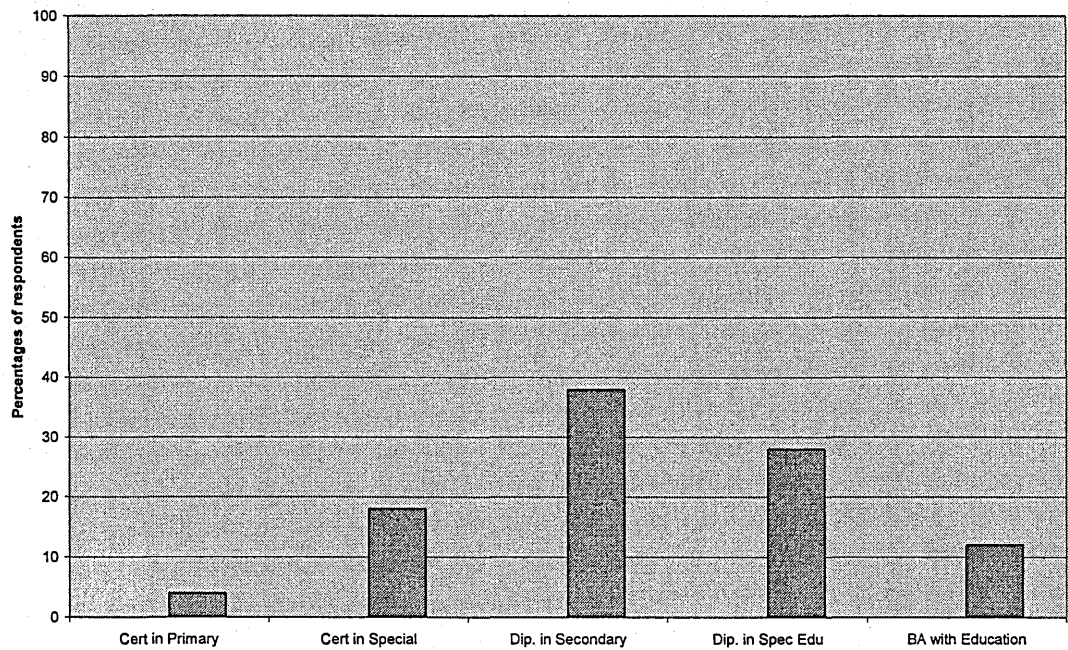
### *The role of education*

Most professionals agree that education is the most effective means society possesses for confronting challenges of the future (for example, . Roger, 1987; Harkin, 1993), and progress increasingly depends upon the products of educated minds in every walks of life (Kauffman, 1993). According to the literature, positive attitudes appear to be influenced by the amount of education a teacher possesses. Studies conducted by Weltzien (1997) and Kasonde-Ng'andu and Moberg (2001) in respect of Canada and Zambia, indicated that teachers with a degree level of education scored more positive attitudes towards inclusion of pupils with disabilities than those holding certificates, diplomas and advanced diplomas. Education has a positive impact on

attitudes towards pupils with disabilities in general education classrooms (Galis, 1994).

The pattern of education among the 60 participants is shown in Figure 17.

Figure 17: Breakdown of questionnaire sample by education

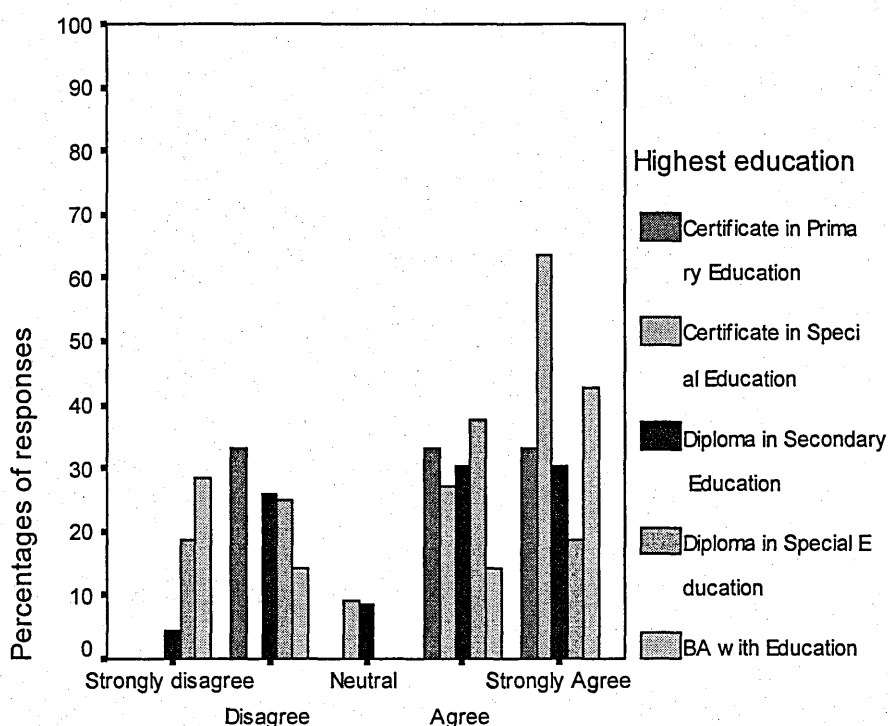


The overall picture from the bar chart above is that participants had a range of education levels with most having a diploma in secondary education. This can be explained as follows. While the Ministry of Education have upgraded the two schools to basic status, it also provides in-service training to enable teachers to teach all grades from grade one to nine.

As in previous sections, seven attitude statements were selected and analysed according to education.

For the attitude statement, 'all pupils should be educated in the general education classrooms to the greatest extent possible', participants with a certificate in special education scored more positive responses than those with certificate in primary, diploma in secondary and special education, and a B.A. with education. The least positive responses were recorded from participants with a B.A. with education. See Figure 18.

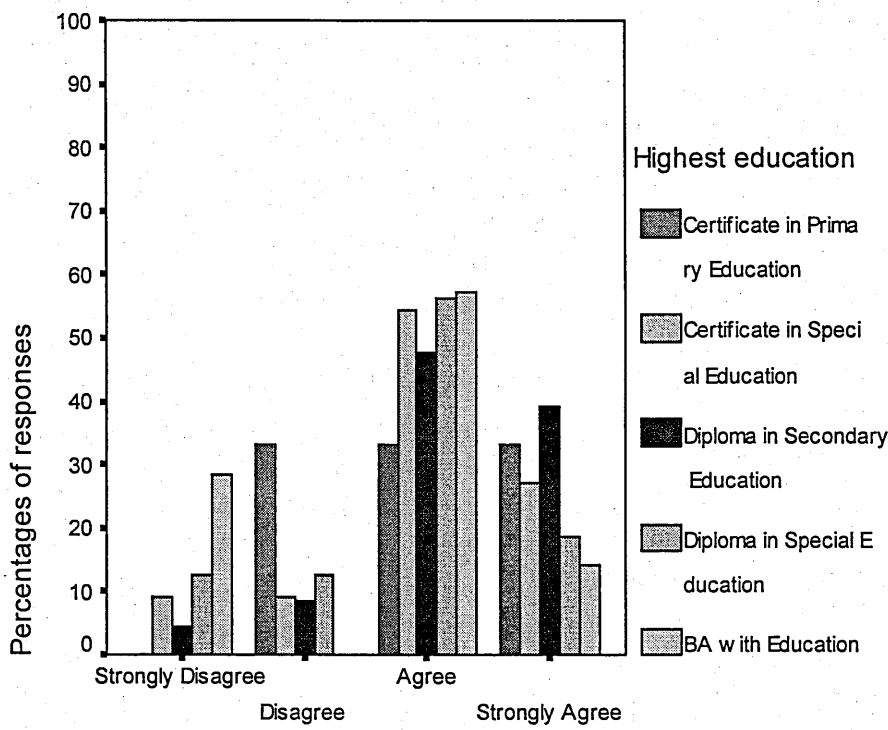
Figure 18: Distribution by education of responses to statement 'all pupils should be educated in the general education classrooms to the greatest extent possible'



In the Kruskal Wallis test of difference the findings indicated no significant difference between the participants levels of education ( $p = 0.122$ ).

For the attitude statement 'all class teachers should have the primary responsibility for the education of all pupils including those with disabilities in their classrooms', proportionately more participants with a certificate in special education, or a diploma in secondary education, scored more positive responses than participants with a certificate in primary education, diploma in special education and a B.A. with education. See Figure 19.

Figure 19: Distribution by education of responses to statement 'all class teachers should have the primary responsibility for education of all pupils including those with disabilities in their classrooms'

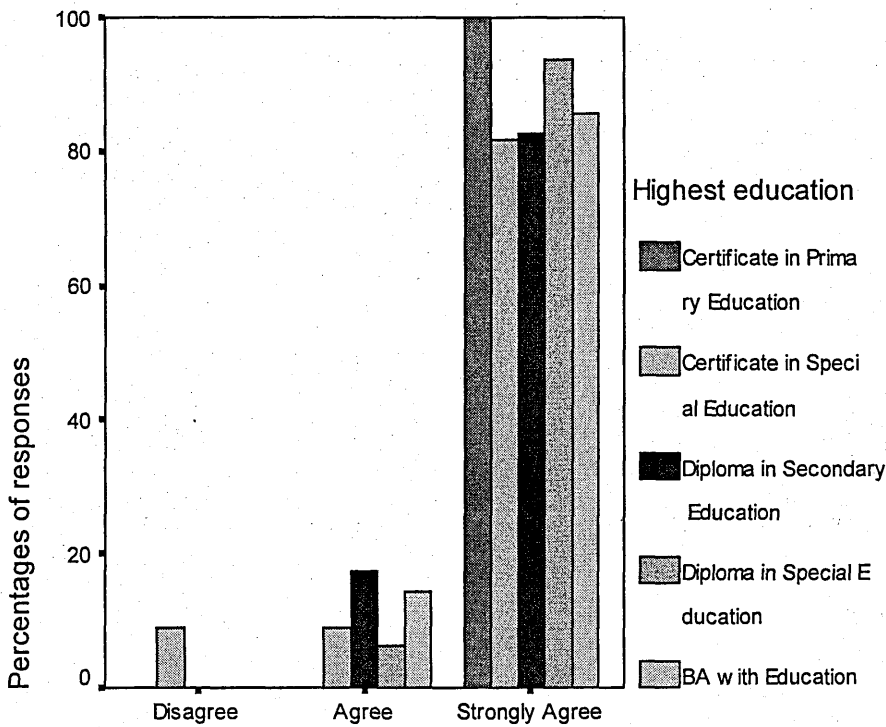


In the Kruskal Wallis test of difference by education, the findings indicated no significant difference between participants levels of education ( $p = 0.504$ ).



For the attitude statement, 'education is a fundamental right for all children including those with disabilities' proportionately more participants with a certificate in primary education scored more positive responses than those with certificate in special education, diploma in secondary education, diploma in special education and B. A. with education. Interestingly, all participants agree that education is a fundamental right to every child including those with disabilities except 1.6% of participants with a certificate in special education. See Figure 20.

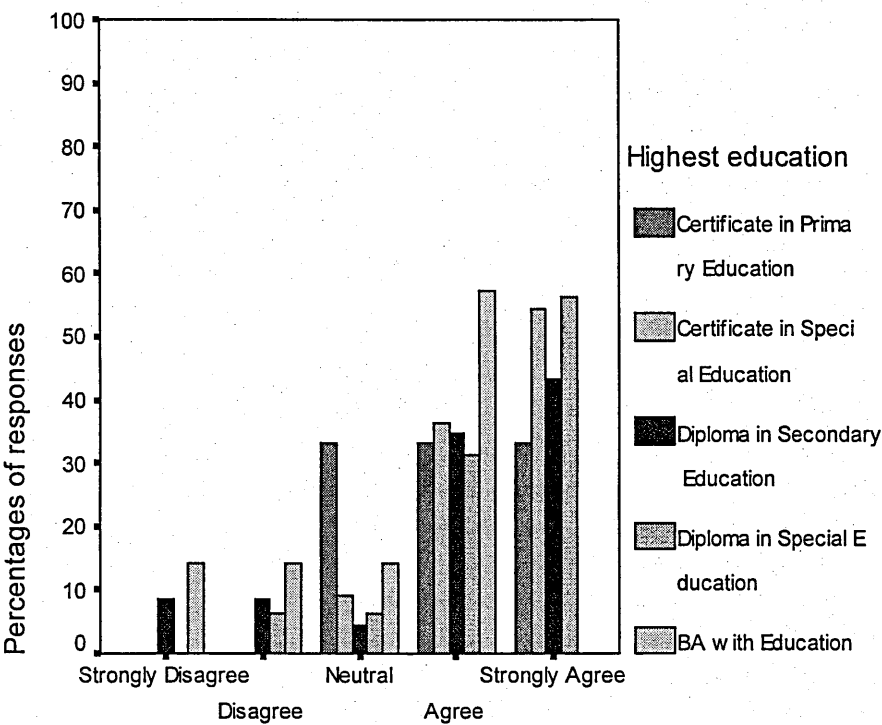
Figure 20: Distribution by education of responses to statement 'education is a fundamental right for all children including those with disabilities'



In the Kruskal Wallis test of difference findings indicated no significant difference ( $p = 0.783$ ) between the groups.

For the attitude statement 'physically disabled pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms', proportionately more participants with certificates and diploma in special education scored more positive responses than those with certificates in primary and special education, diploma in secondary education and B. A. with education. See Figure 21.

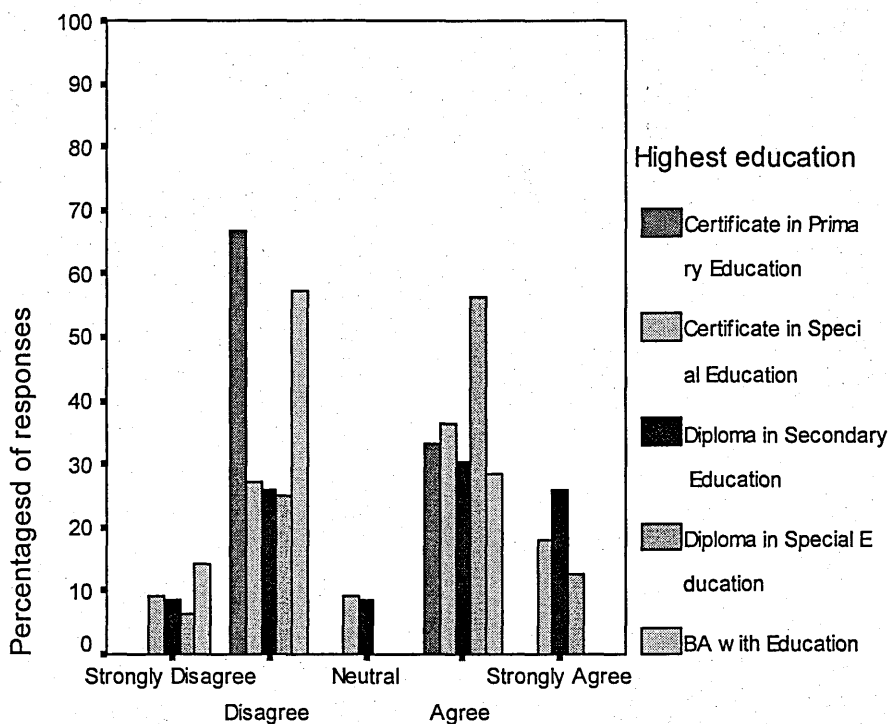
Figure 21: Distribution by education of responses to statement 'physically disabled pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms'



In the Kruskal Wallis test of difference the findings indicated no significant difference between participants level of education ( $p = 0.092$ ).

For the attitude 'intellectually impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms', participants' responses were divided more evenly. It is interesting to note that the largest disagree responses were from those with a certificate in primary education and the B.A. with education. See Figure 22.

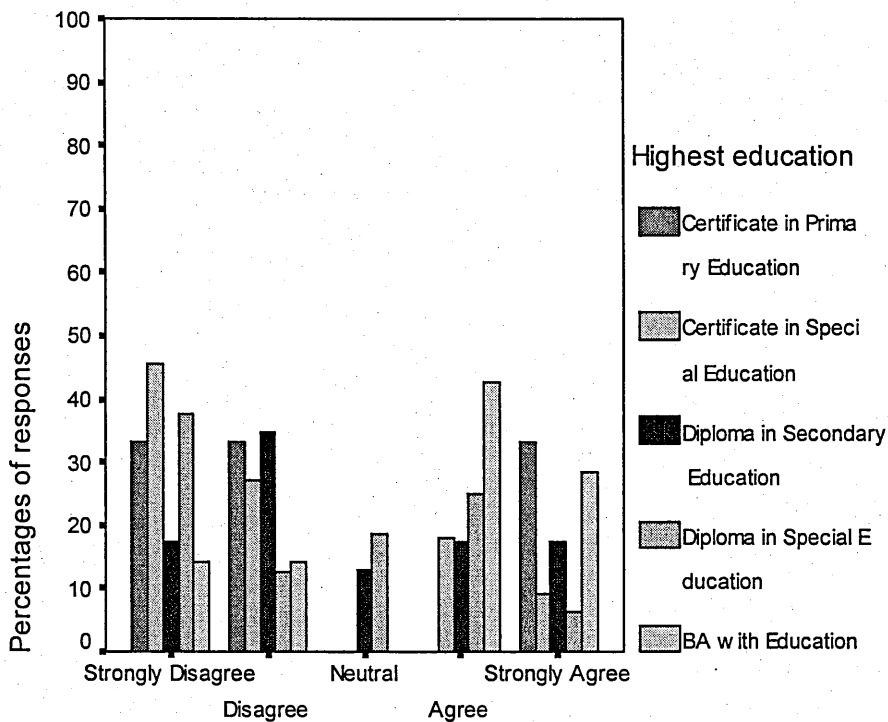
Figure 22: Distribution by education of responses to statement 'intellectually pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms'



In the Kruskal Wallis test of difference the findings indicated no significant difference ( $p = 0.396$ ) between the groups.

For the attitude statement 'visually impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms', proportionately more participants with a B.A. with education scored more positive responses than participants with certificates in primary education, certificates in special education, diploma in secondary education and diploma in special education. The majority of responses from all groups were neutral or negative, however. See Figure 23.

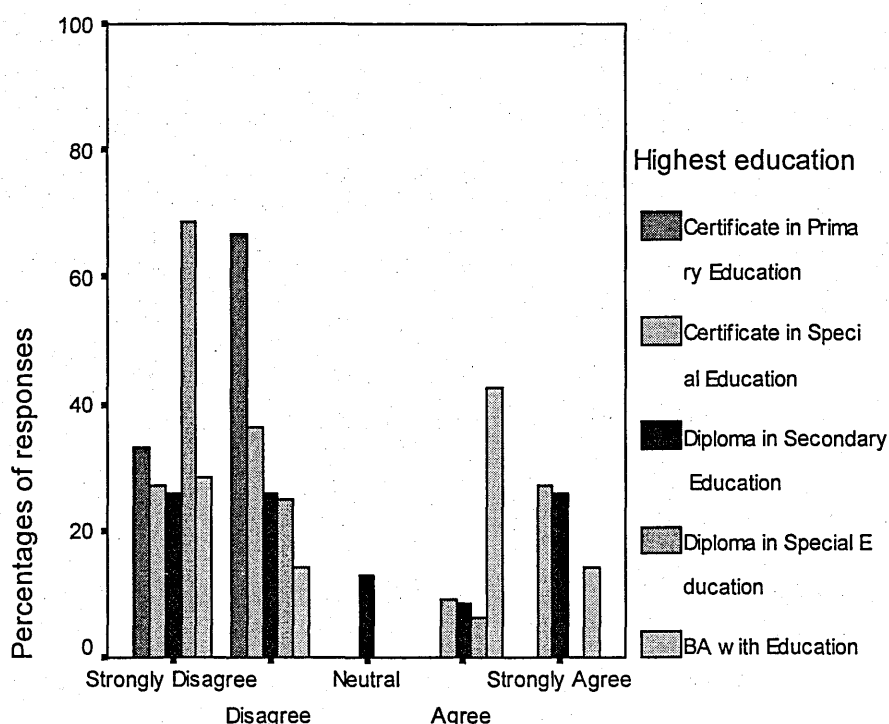
Figure 23: Distribution by education of responses to statement 'visually impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms' by education



In the Kruskal Wallis test of difference by education the results indicated no significant difference ( $p = 0.348$ ).

For the attitude statement 'hearing impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms', proportionately more participants with a B.A. with education registered more positive responses towards the inclusion of pupils with hearing impairments in the general education classrooms than participants with certificates in primary, certificates in special education, diploma in secondary education and diploma in special education. Again the majority of responses were negative. See Figure 24.

Figure 24: Distribution by education of responses to statement 'hearing impaired pupils have the right to be educated in general education classrooms'



In the Kruskal Wallis test of difference by education findings indicated a significant difference between participant levels of education ( $p = 0.026$ ).

A multiple comparisons between treatments analysis was undertaken which revealed a significant difference between groups ( $p \geq 0.05$ ). This revealed a significant difference

between the diploma and the BA groups. This is illustrated in the box plot in appendix 7.

### *Summary*

The Kruskal Wallis test of difference was conducted to find out whether there was a significant difference between the types of training. Findings indicated that there was no significant difference between the types of training, except for the statement relating to hearing impaired pupils (See figures 21, 22, 23, and 24).

Previous studies conducted on attitudes and inclusion of pupils with disabilities in some parts of the world (Millar, 1996; Tembo, 2001) indicated that participants with training in special education were more supportive to inclusion of pupils with disabilities in the general education classrooms than those without training.

The current study indicates no significant difference between groups with the exception of the inclusion of hearing impaired pupils. This study shows the most negative attitudes among those with special education diplomas.

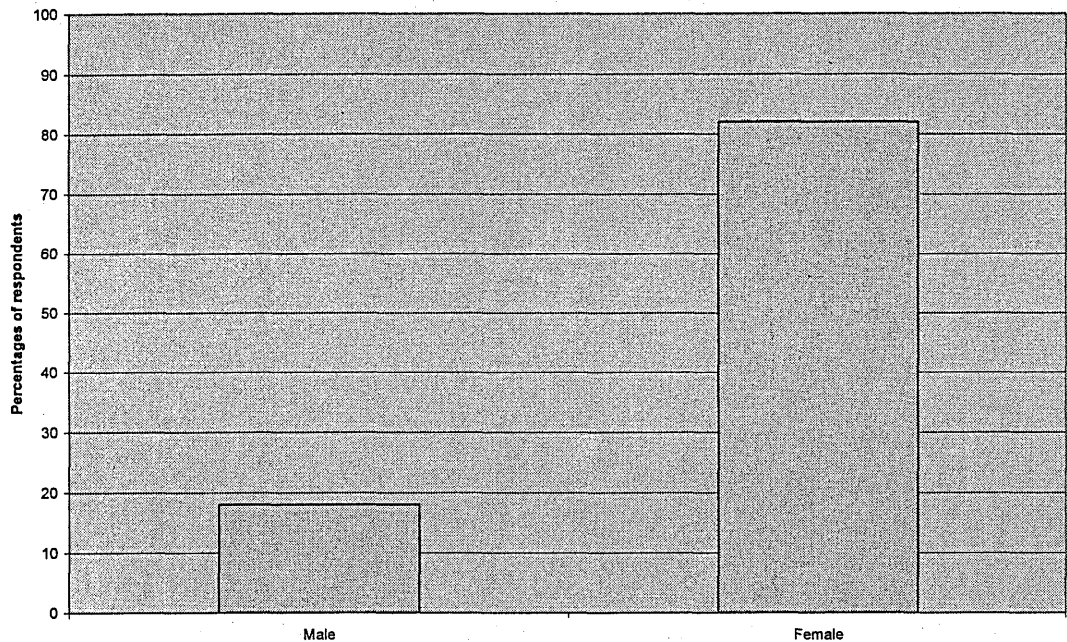
### *The role of gender*

Many studies conducted in the developed world and other parts of the world indicate that gender has a bearing on attitudes towards the inclusion of pupils with disabilities in the general education classrooms (Arrington, 1992). Galis (1994) in Canada, Millar, (1996) in the USA, Kasonde-Ng'andu & Moberg, (2001) in Zambia, all reveal that female participants usually have more positive attitudes towards pupils with disabilities and inclusion.

The breakdown of the questionnaire sample for this attitude according to gender was (82%) females and (18%) males. The scenario of having more female participants in this study was explained earlier that the education system has been

dominated by females owing to the fact that males tend to be more mobile after training. The distribution of the male and female samples is shown in Figure 25.

Figure 25: Breakdown of questionnaire sample by gender

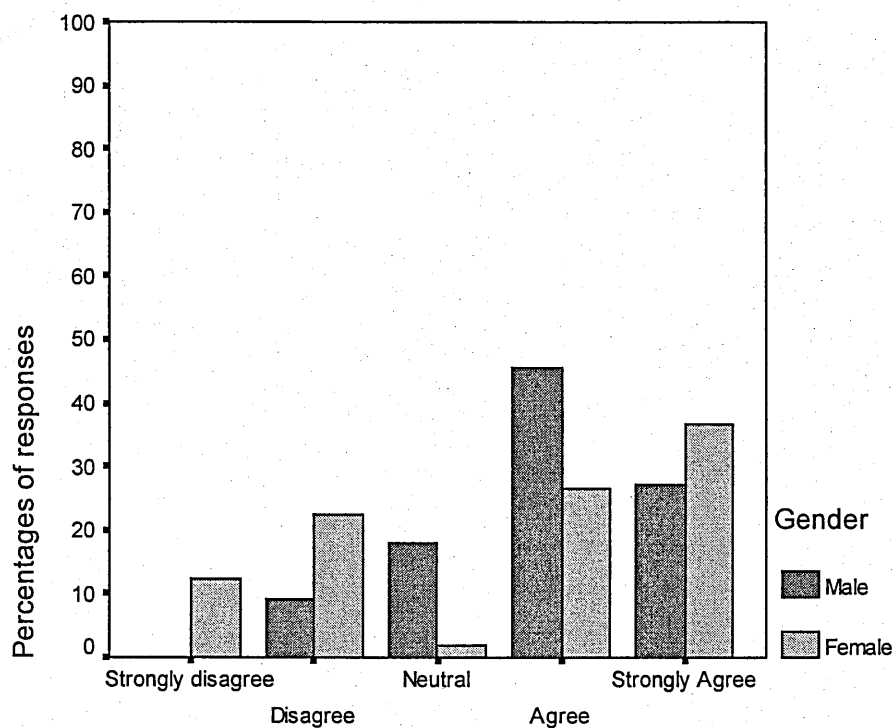


As earlier indicated the education system in Zambia is staffed largely by females especially in urban areas where this sample was drawn.

Having shown the sample distribution, what follows is the analysis of the seven selected attitude statements according to gender.

For the attitude statement 'all pupils should be educated in the general education classrooms to the greatest extent possible', a variety of opinions was expressed. See Figure 26.

Figure 26: Distribution by gender of responses to statement 'all pupils should be educated in the general education to the greatest extent possible'

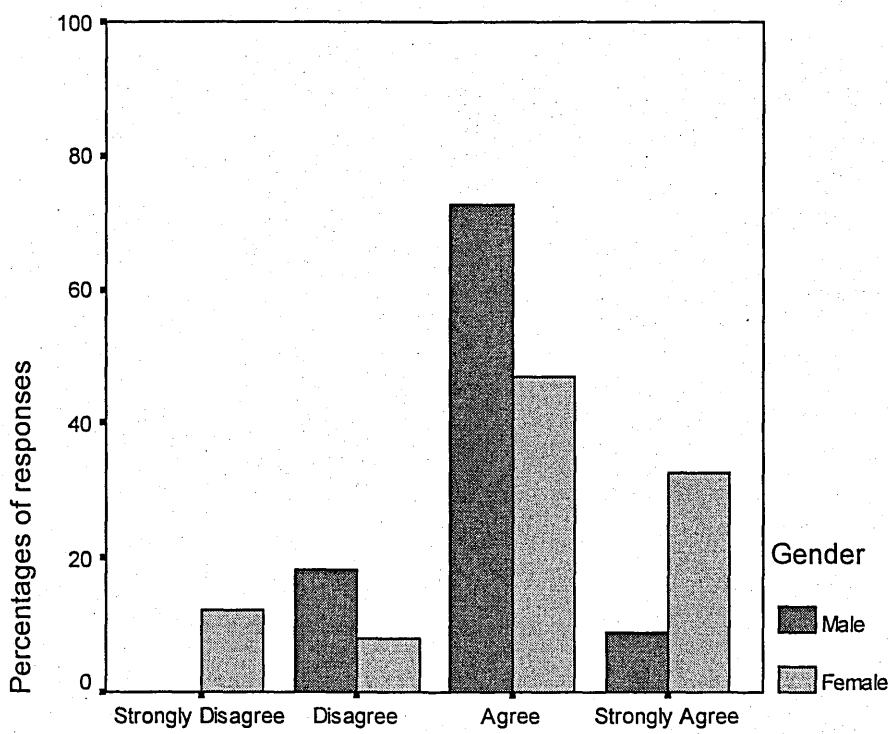


In the Mann-Whitney test of difference by gender the findings indicated no significant difference between male and female participants ( $p = 0.698$ ). The majority of respondents agreed, however.



For the attitude statement 'all class teachers should have primary responsibility for the education of all pupils including those with disabilities in their classrooms' most participants were positive in their views. See Figure 27.

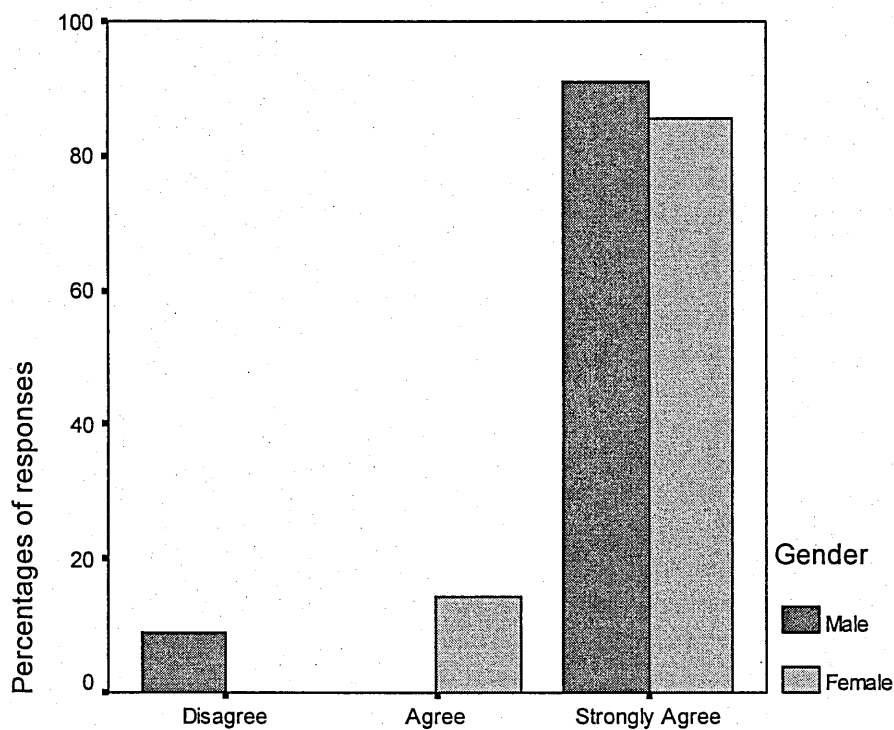
Figure 27: Distribution by gender of responses to statement 'all class teachers should have the primary responsibility for the education of all pupils including those with disabilities in their classrooms'



In the Mann-Whitney test of difference by gender the findings indicated no significant difference ( $p = 0.398$ ).

For the attitude statement 'education is a fundamental right for all children including those with disabilities' a greater proportion of female participants indicated more positive scores towards the statement. However, one interesting thing is that all participants registered their support for the statement except about 10% of the male participants who disagreed. See Figure 28.

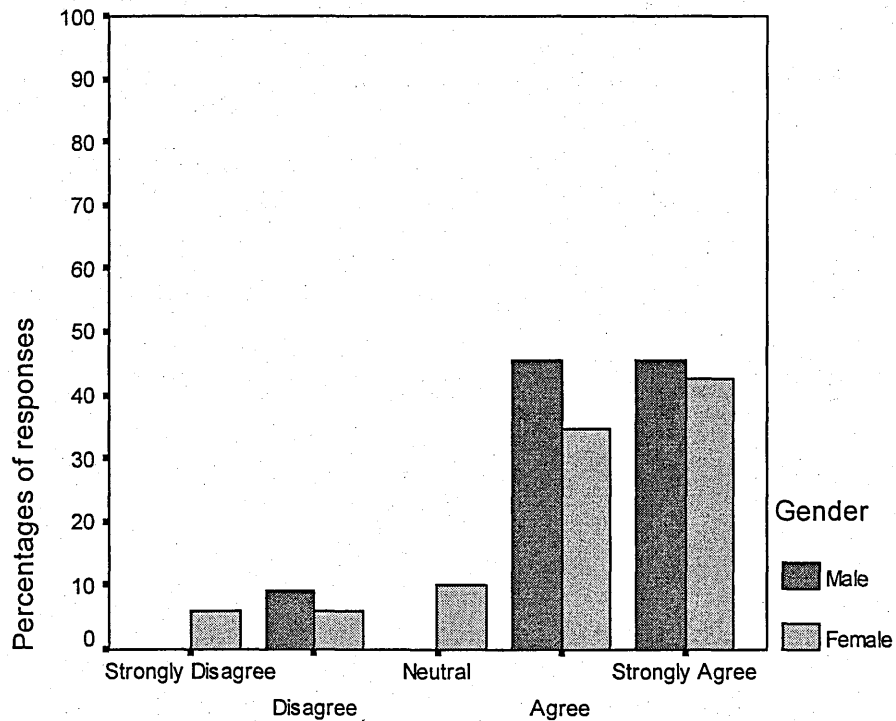
Figure 28: Distribution by gender of responses to statement 'education is a fundamental right to all children including those with disabilities'



In the Mann-Whitney test of difference by gender the findings indicated no significant difference ( $p = 0.734$ ).

For the attitude statement 'physically disabled pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms' most male and female participants responded positively with very few negative responses. See Figure 29.

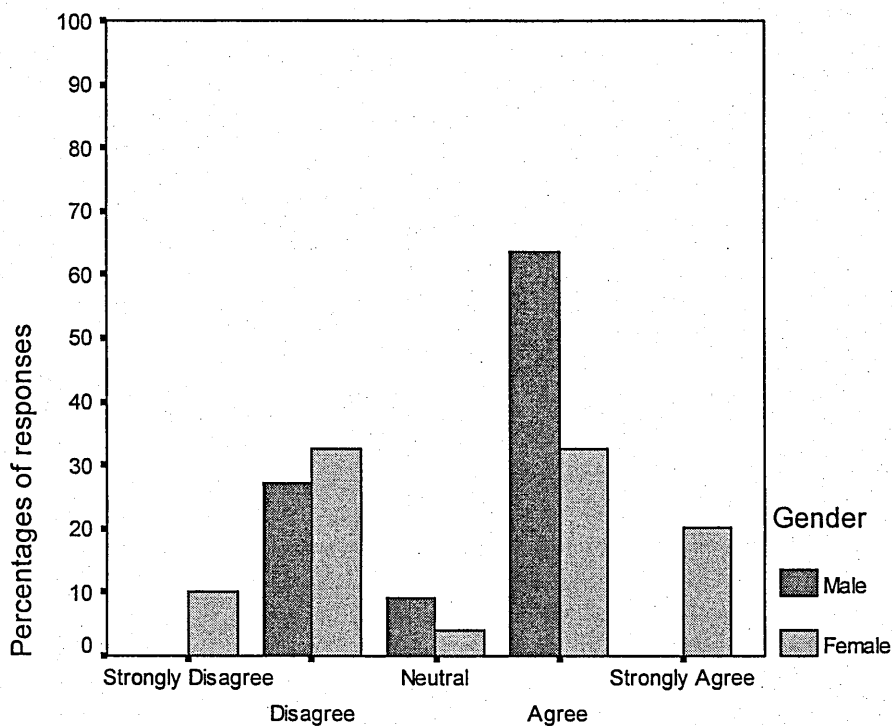
Figure 29: Distribution by gender of responses to statement 'physically disabled pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms'



In the Mann-Whitney test of difference by gender the findings indicated no significant difference between males and female participants in terms of attitude ( $p = 0.608$ ).

For the attitude statement 'intellectually impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms' proportionately more male participants scored more positive responses than female participants. See Figure 30.

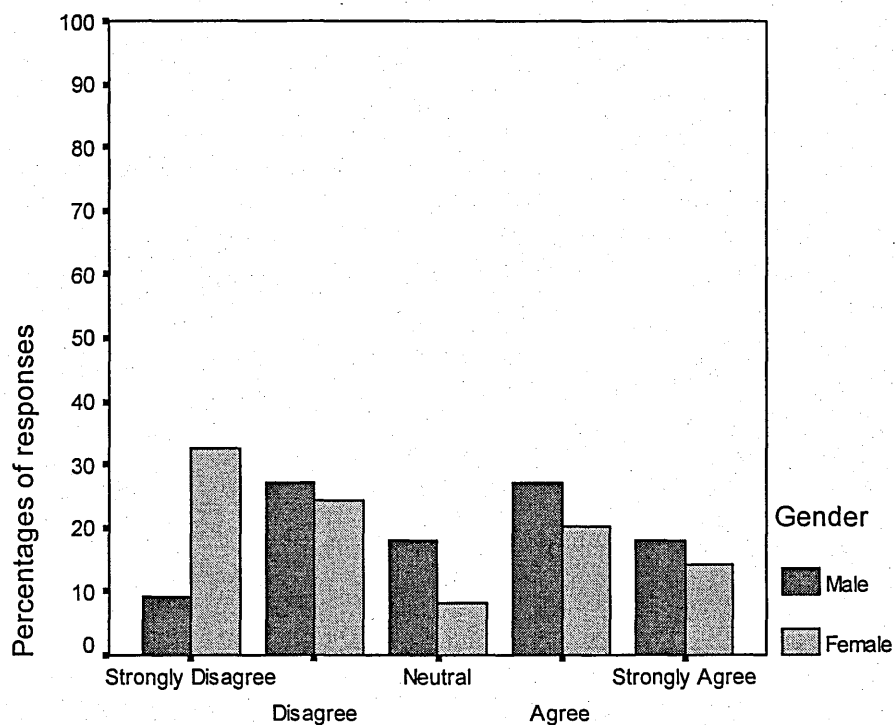
Figure 30: Distribution by gender of responses to statement 'intellectually impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms'



In the Mann-Whitney test of difference by gender the findings indicated no significant difference between male and female participants ( $p = 0.865$ ).

For the attitude statement 'visually impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms' a variety of opinions were expressed respondents. However, proportionately more male participants scored more positive responses towards the inclusion of pupils with visual impairment in the general education classrooms although more than half of the responses were either neutral or negative. See Figure 31.

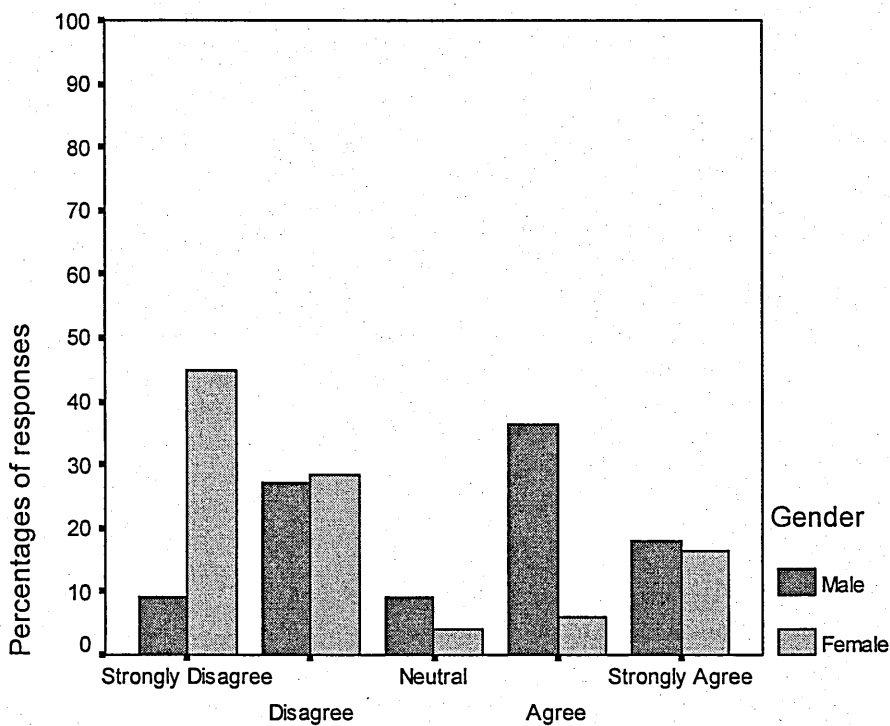
Figure 31: Distribution by gender of responses to statement 'visually impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms'



In the Mann-Whitney test of difference by gender the findings revealed no significant difference ( $p = 0.192$ ).

For the attitude statement 'hearing impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms' proportionately more male participants recorded more positive responses than female participants. Interestingly, female participants were more negative towards this statement. See Figure 32.

Figure 32: Distribution by gender of responses to statement 'hearing impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms'



In the Mann-Whitney test of difference by gender the results indicated significant difference between male and female participants ( $p = 0.023$ ).

Men scored significantly more positive responses. However, overall, most responses were either neutral or negative.

### Summary

The Mann-Whitney U-test of difference was conducted to find out whether there was significant difference between male and female participants in terms of their attitudes towards

the inclusion of pupils with disabilities in the seven attitudes statements. Only one '*hearing impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms*' indicated significant difference ( $p = 0.023$ ), between male and female participants.

Overall, male participants were more positive than female participants. Many factors could be attributed to the female participants' low positive responses. This could be that male participants are more open to new ideas than female participants. It could also be that females understand the daily reality of caring for disabled children and the additional work it entails.

This finding does not support previous studies which indicate that female participants usually score more positive attitudes towards the inclusion of pupils with disabilities in the general education classrooms (Arrington, 1992; Galis, 1994; Millar, 1996).

The female participants overwhelmingly endorsed '*education is a fundamental right for all children including those with disabilities*'. It was surprising to note that although female participants felt '*education is fundamental right for all children including those with disabilities*' their positive responses regarding the inclusion of pupils with particular disabilities were quite low.

### *The role of age*

Many previous studies indicate that age has a bearing on attitudes of teachers towards the inclusion of pupils with disabilities in the general education classrooms (Ferley, 1991; Roach, 1998; Kasonde-Ng'andu & Moberg, 2001). Older people tend to be more in favour of inclusion.

The breakdown of the sample according to age range was approximately 56%, under 25 years; 8% were between 25 - 30

years, 18% were between 31 -40 years 12% were between 41-50 and 6% were between 51 - 60 years. See Figure 33.

Figure 33: Breakdown of questionnaire sample by age

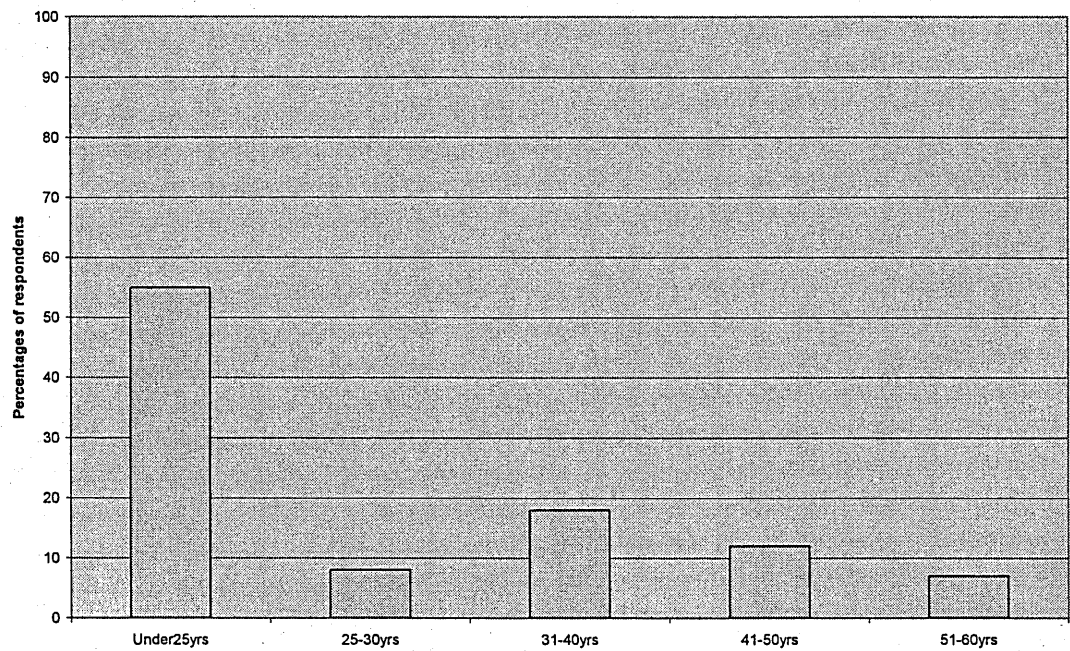
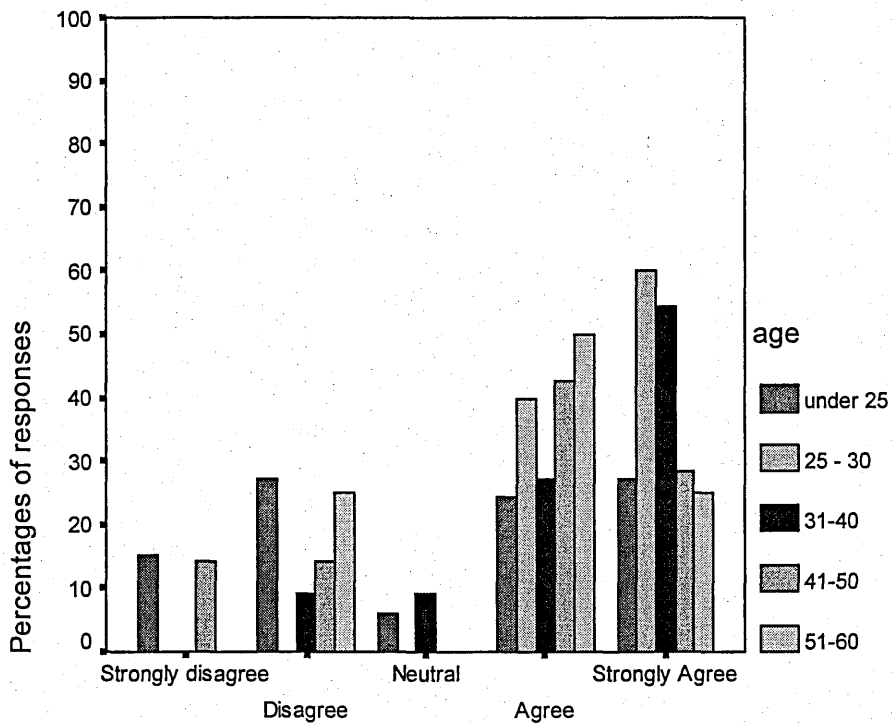


Figure 33 shows most of the participants were young, under 25 years. This can probably be explained by the fact that most older teachers had retired early due to policy of 'Early retirement' which was established in 1990 or have died due to the impact of HIV/AIDS epidemic (Ministry of Health, 1997; Robson and Kanyanta, 2005).



For the attitude statement 'all pupils should be educated in the general education classrooms to the greatest extent possible', on the whole all the age bands favourably supported the statement although a few responses were negative. See Figure 34.

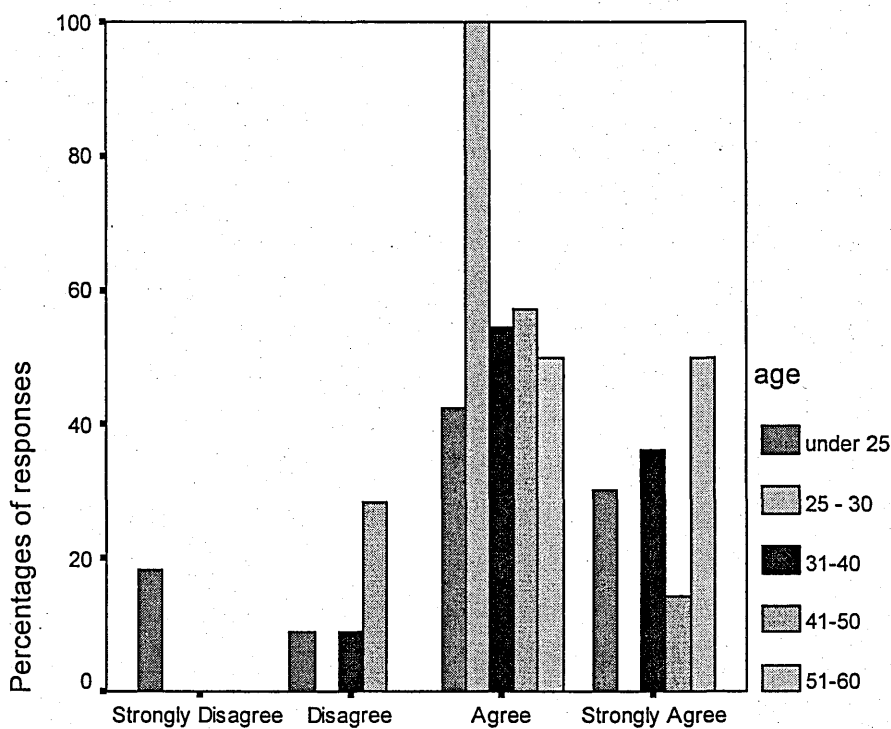
Figure 34: Distribution by age of responses to statement 'all pupils should be educated in the general education to the greatest extent possible'



In the Kruskal Wallis test of difference by age the findings indicated no significant difference between male and female participants ( $p = 0.127$ ).

For the attitude statement 'all class teachers should have primary responsibility for the education of all pupils including those with disabilities in their classrooms' proportionately more participants in the age ranges under 25 - 30 years and 51 - 60 years registered more positive responses than participants under 25 years, 31 - 40 years and 41 - 50 years. See Figure 35.

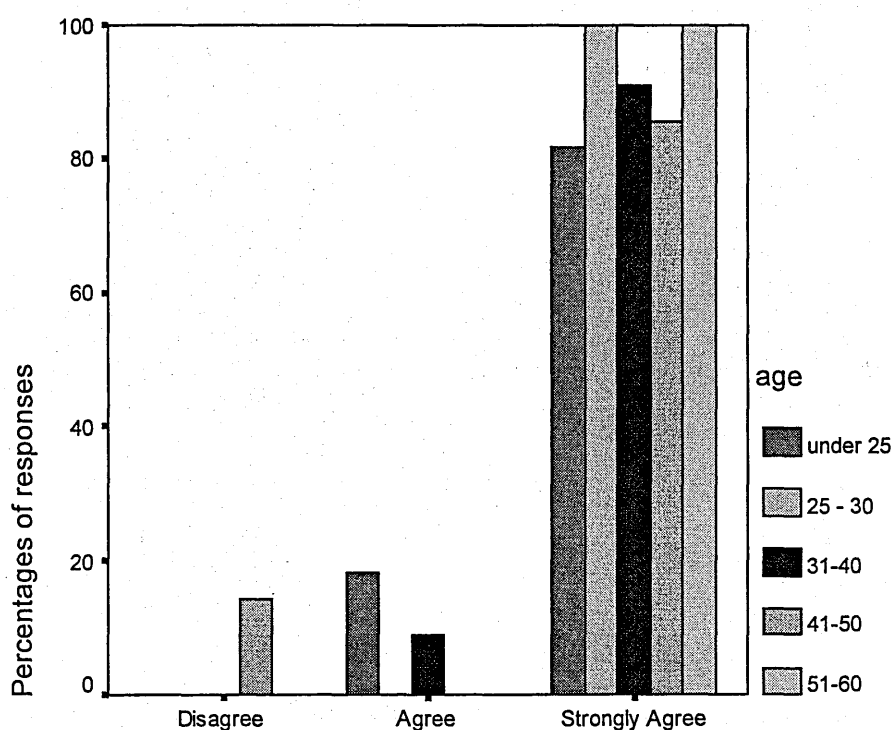
Figure 35: Distribution by age of responses to statement 'all class teachers should have the primary responsibility for the education of all pupils including those with disabilities in their classrooms'



In the Kruskal Wallis test of difference by age the findings indicated no significant difference ( $p = 0.527$ ) between the age groups but responses were largely positive as elsewhere.

For the attitude statement 'education is a fundamental right for all children including those with disabilities' all participants in the age bands indicated more positive responses than participants with between age range 41 - 50 years. While most participants were in agreement with this statement a few in the 41 - 50 years age band recorded negative responses. See Figure 36.

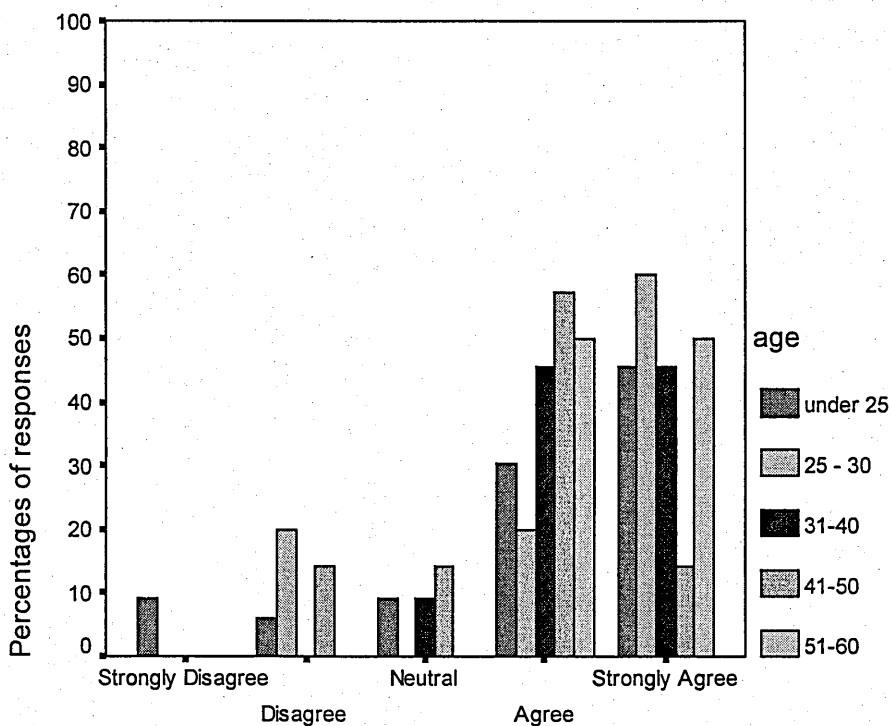
Figure 36: Distribution by age of responses to statement 'education is a fundamental right to all children including those with disabilities'



In the Kruskal Wallis test of difference by age the findings indicated no significant difference ( $p = 0.707$ ).

For the attitude statement 'physically disabled pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms' proportionately more participants in the age range 51 - 60 years scored more positive responses than participants between age range under 25 years, 25 - 30 years, 31 - 40 years, and 41 - 50 years. See Figure 37.

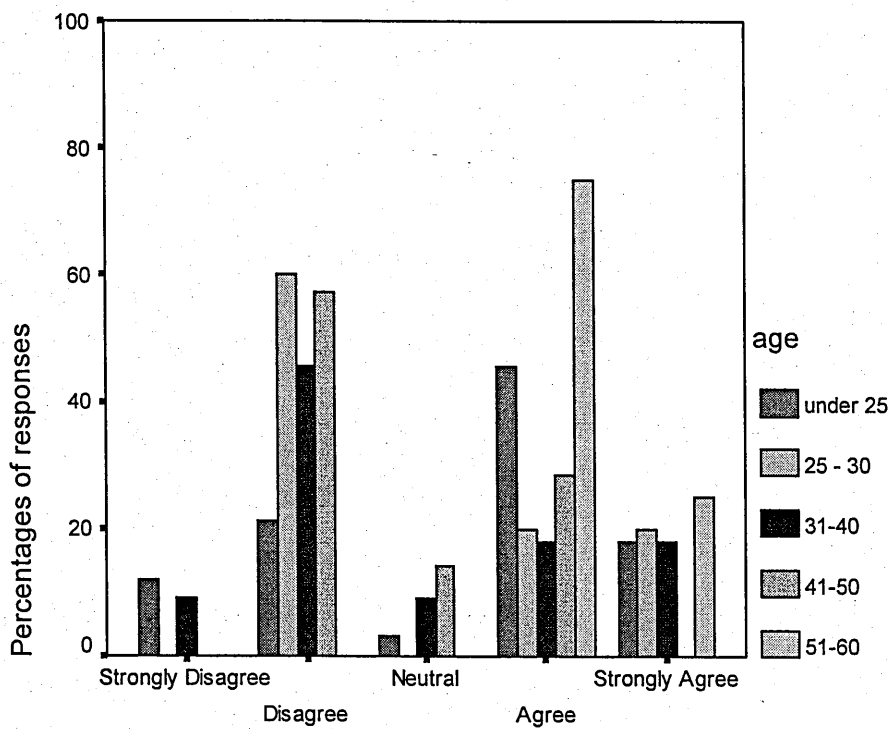
Figure 37: Distribution by age of responses to statement 'physically disabled pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms'



In the Kruskal Wallis test of difference by age the findings indicated no significant difference ( $p = 0.612$ ). Most participants agreed with the statement.

For the attitude statement 'intellectually impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms' proportionately more participants between age range 51 - 60 years scored more positive responses than participants between age range under 25 years, 25 - 30 years, 31 - 40 years and 41 - 50 years. See Figure 38.

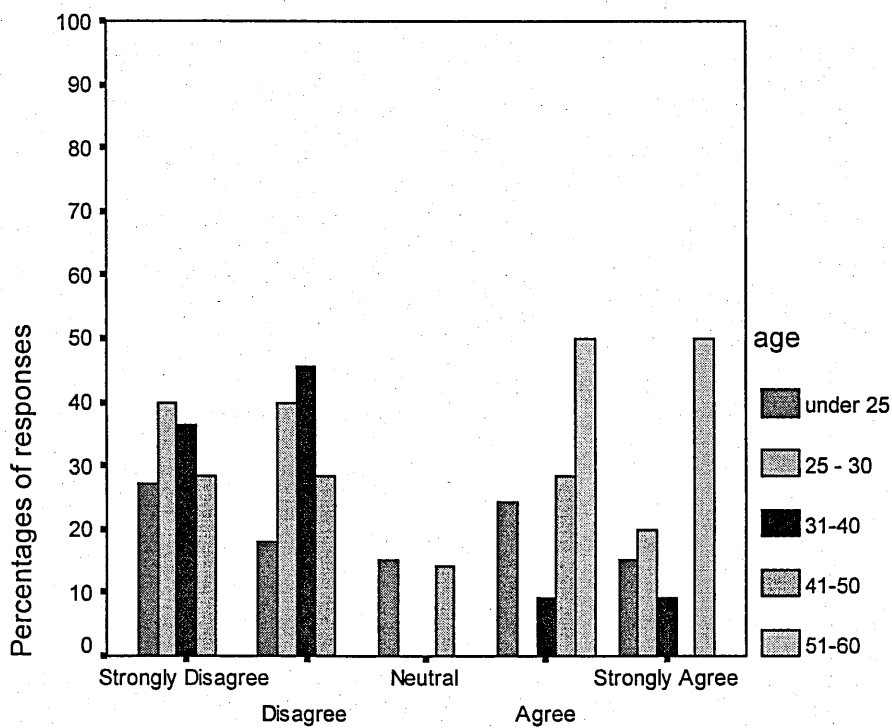
Figure 38: Distribution by age of responses to statement 'intellectually impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms'



In the Kruskal Wallis test of difference by age the findings indicated no significant difference ( $p = 0.329$ ).

For the attitude statement 'visually impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms', proportionately more participants between age range 51-60 years scored more positive responses than participants in other age bands. See Figure 39.

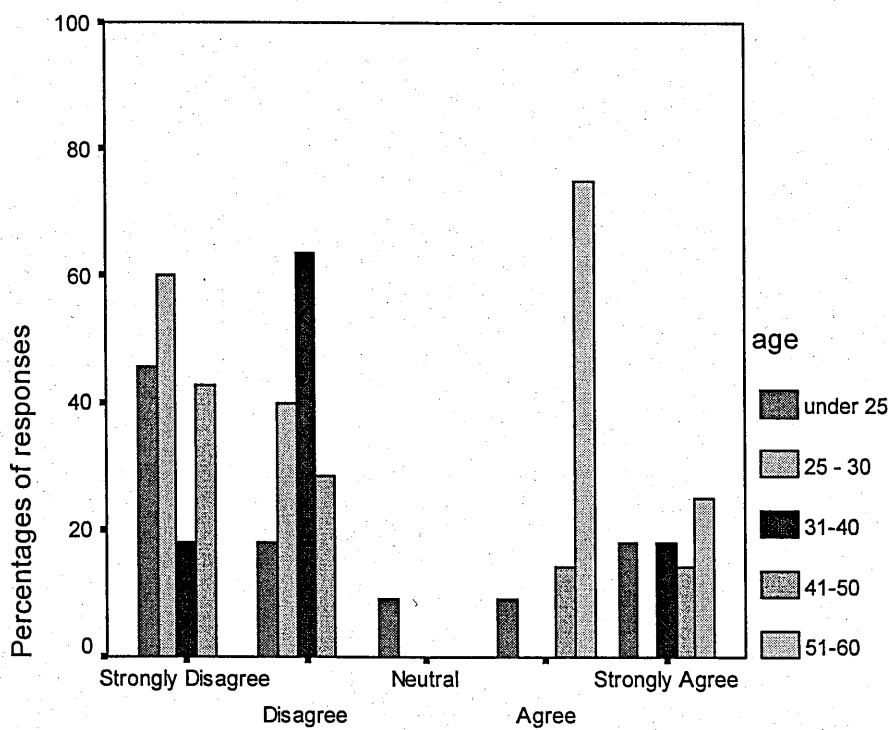
Figure 39: Distribution by age of responses to statement 'visually impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms'



In the Kruskal Wallis test of difference by age the findings revealed no significant difference ( $p = 0.085$ ).

For the attitude statement 'hearing impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms' proportionately more participants between range 51 - 60 years recorded more positive responses. Interestingly, all scores for participants in the age band 25 - 30 years, were negative. See Figure 40.

Figure 40: Distribution by age of responses to statement 'hearing impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms'



In the Kruskal Wallis test of difference by age the results indicated no significant difference ( $p = 0.120$ ).

### Summary

As in previous sections seven attitude statements were selected from the questionnaire in order to ascertain the attitude of teachers towards the inclusion of pupils with disabilities in general education classrooms.

The Kruskal Wallis test of difference to find out whether there was any significant difference between age ranges was

made. There was no significant difference between age ranges of participants.

Participants between age range 51-60 years recorded more positive scores in most of the statements. This finding support previous studies which indicate that older participants usually score more positive responses towards the inclusion of pupils with disabilities in the general education classrooms than young participants (Arrington, 1992; Galis, 1994; .Millar, 1996).

However, as there was no significant difference between genders in any of the tests, the apparent differences in the current study may be the result of chance.

### *The role of experience*

Experience means the accumulation of knowledge or skills that result from direct interaction with persons, objects, environment or participation in events. Experience may be acquired for example, through mere discussion, seminars, workshops, coursework, meetings, or physical interaction with a person. Most professionals agree that experience has a bearing on attitudes. Roach (1998) conducted a study in Canada to determine the relationship between attitudes and experience. The results indicated that teachers who had experience with pupils with disabilities were more positive than those who had no experience. The study reported that different categories of disabilities also affect the willingness of teachers to accept pupils in the general education classrooms.

The breakdown of the sample according to experience was 65% of participants without experience with pupils with disabilities and 35% of participants had experience with pupils with disabilities. See Figure 41.

*Figure 41: Breakdown of questionnaire sample by experience*



FIGURE 41: BREAK DOWN OF QUESTIONNAIRE SAMPLE BY EXPERIENCE

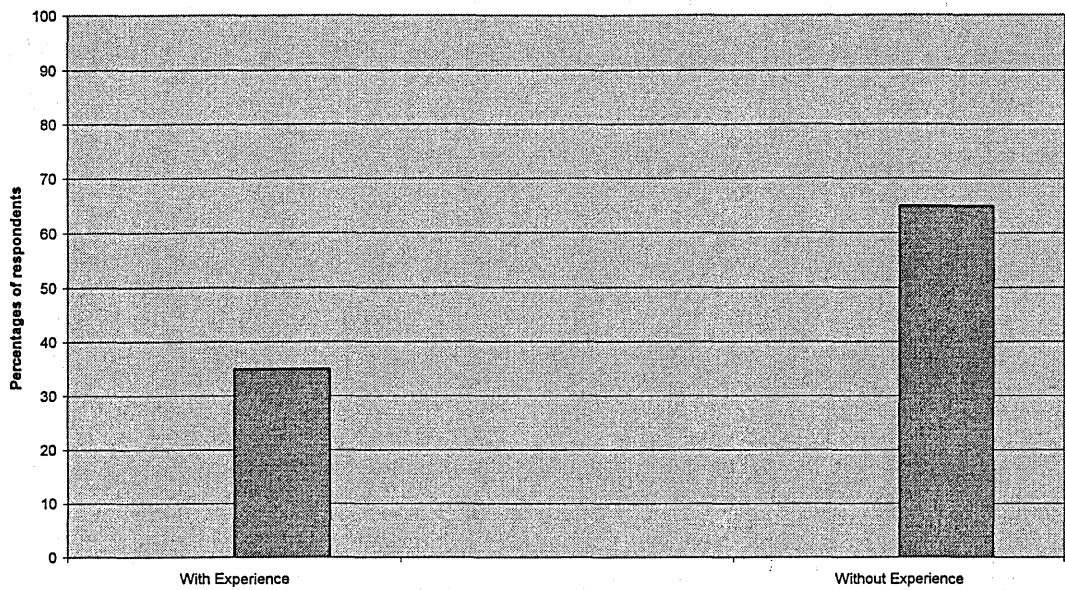


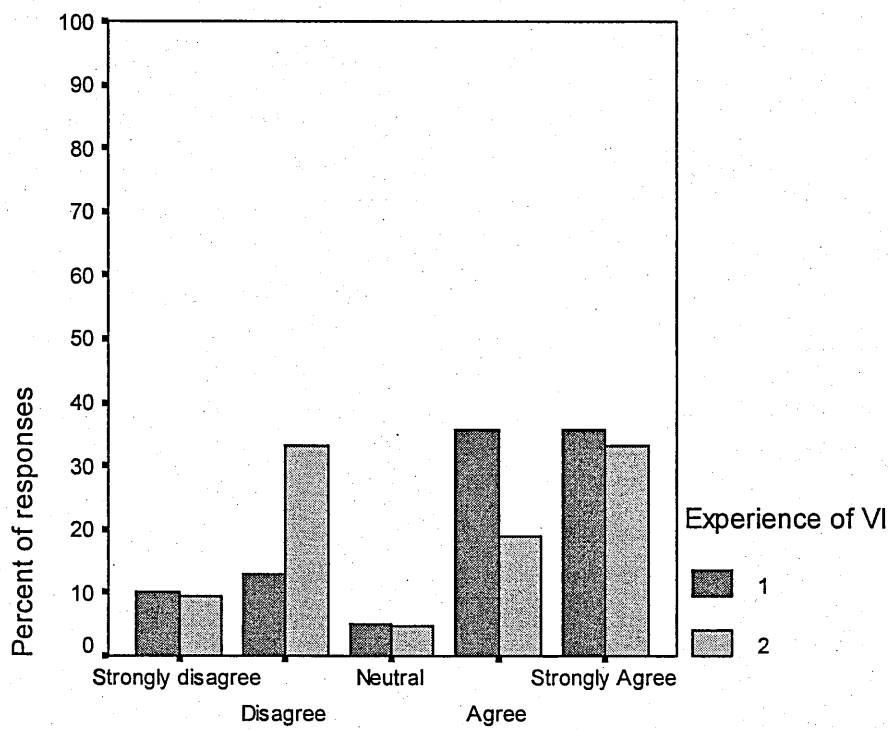
Figure 41 shows more teachers without experience of pupils with disabilities participated in the study than those with experience.

As in previous sections, seven attitudes statements were selected and analysed according to experience of physical, intellectual, visual and hearing impairments. In the analysis of experience '1' represents for participants with experience and '2' participants without experience.

*Experience with visual impairment*

For the statement 'all pupils should be educated in the general education classrooms to the greatest extent possible', a variety of responses was noted. Proportionately more participants with experience recorded more positive responses than those without experience. See Figure 42.

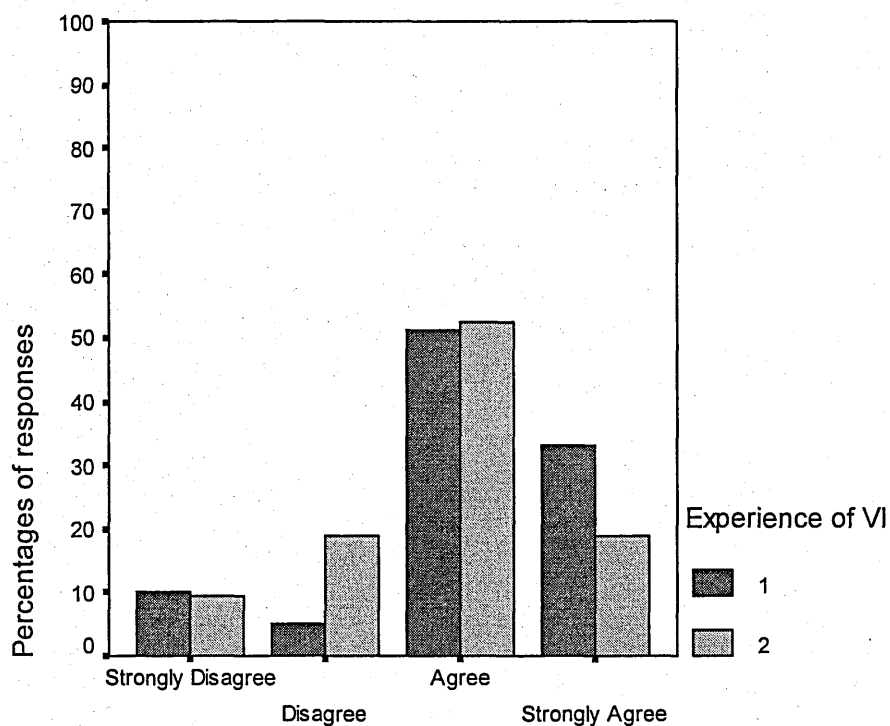
Figure 42: Distribution by experience of VI of the responses to the statement 'all pupils should be educated in the general education classrooms to the greatest extent possible'



In the Mann-Whitney test of difference by experience the results indicated no significant difference ( $p = 0.383$ ).

For the attitude statement 'all class teachers should have the primary responsibility for the education of all pupils including those with disabilities in their classrooms', proportionately more participants with experience recorded more positive responses than participants with experience. See Figure 43.

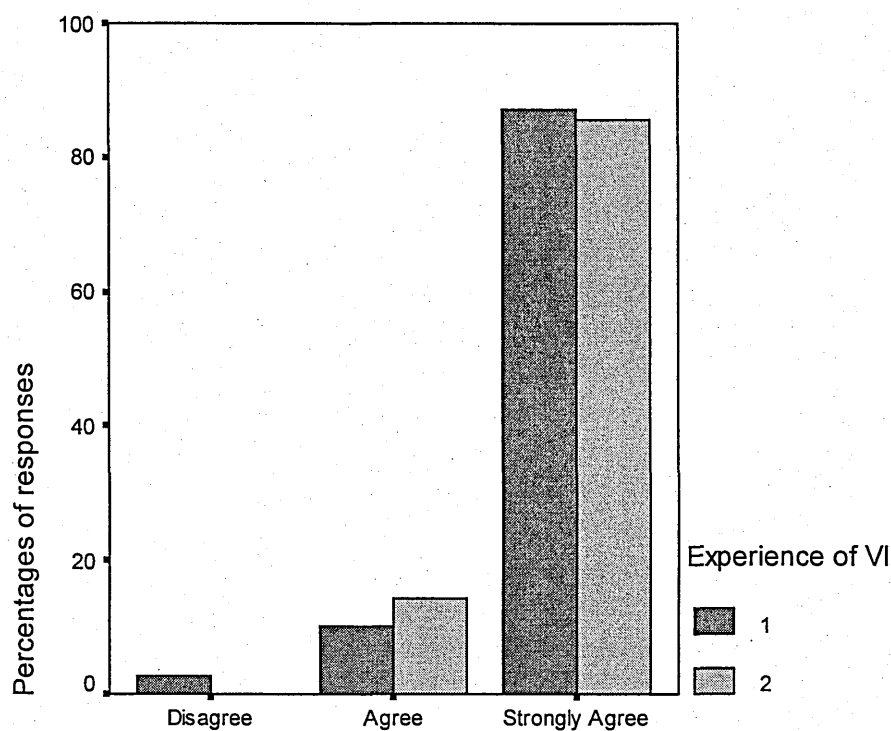
Figure 43: Distribution by experience of VI of responses to statement 'all class teachers should have the primary responsibility for the education of all pupils including those with disabilities in their classrooms'



In the Mann-Whitney test of difference by experience the results indicated no significant difference ( $p = 0.178$ ).

For the attitude statement 'education is a fundamental right for all children including those with disabilities', both participants with and without experience indicated positive responses to the statement. Only 1.6% of participants with experience were in disagreement. See figure 44.

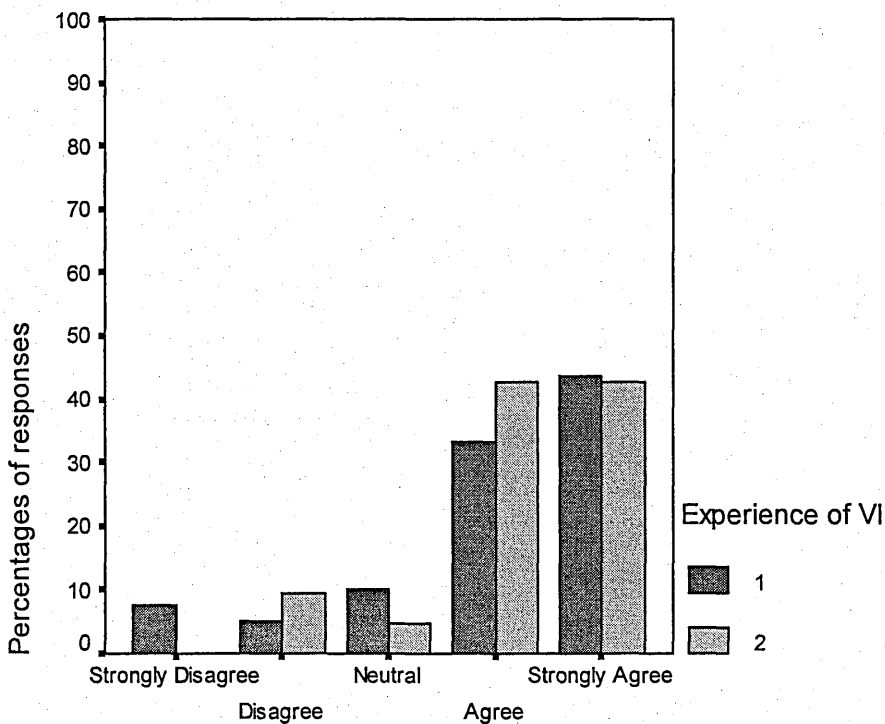
Figure 44: Distribution by experience of VI of responses to statement 'education is a fundamental right to all children including those with disabilities'



In the Mann-Whitney test of difference by experience the results indicated no significant difference ( $p = 0.906$ ).

For the attitude statement 'physically disabled pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms' both participants with and without experience supported the statement with very few responses being negative. See Figure 45.

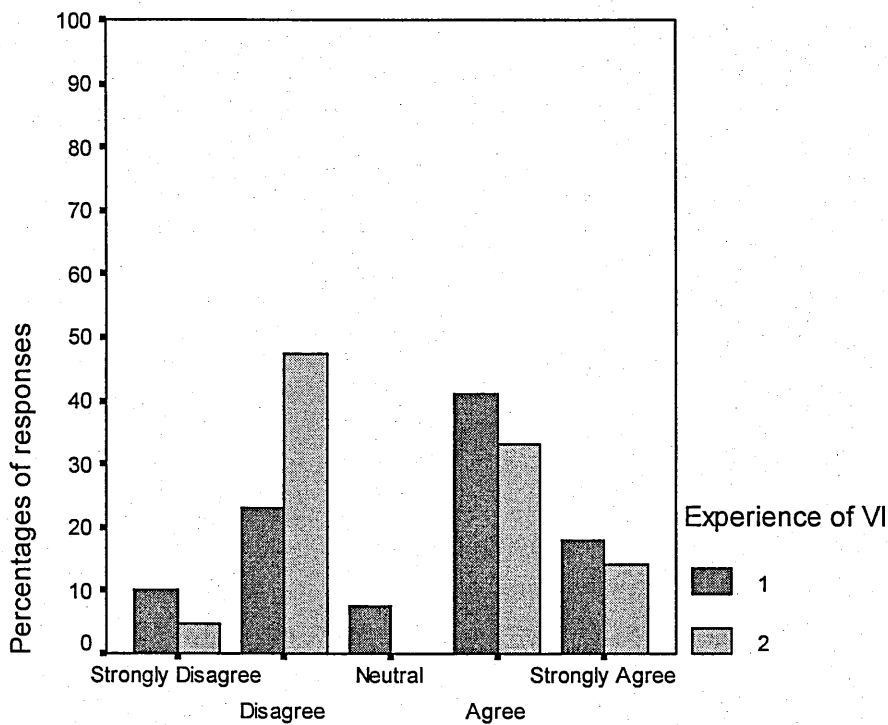
Figure 45: Distribution by experience of VI of responses to statement 'physically disabled pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms'



In the Mann-Whitney test difference by experience the results indicated no significant difference ( $p = 0.746$ ).

For the attitude statement 'intellectually impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms' a variety of opinions was noted. Participants with experience were divided on the issue of including pupils with intellectual impairments in the general education classrooms. Although this was the case, proportionately more participants without experience scored more positive responses than participants with experience. See Figure 46.

Figure 46: Distribution by experience of VI of responses to statement 'intellectually impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms'

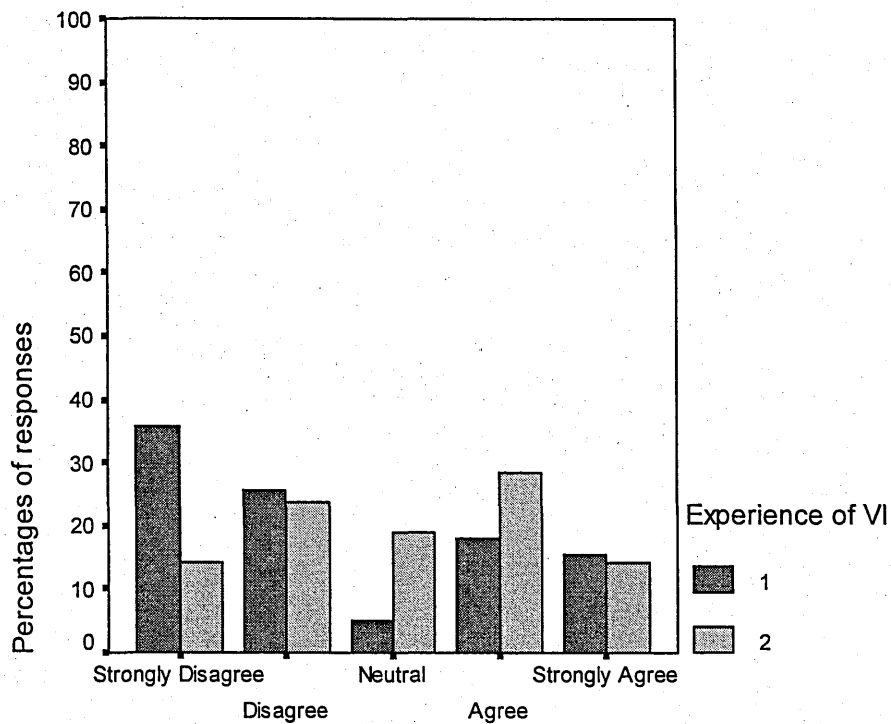


In the Mann-Whitney test of difference by experience the results indicated no significant difference ( $p = 0.435$ ).

For the attitude statement 'visually impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms' a variety of responses were noted from respondents. Both participants with and without experience were divided on the issue of including pupils with visual impairments with majority of participants without experience falling in disagreeing and strongly disagreeing grid. However, proportionately more participants without experience recorded more positive responses than participants with experience. See Figure 47.

The strongest negative responses came from those with experience.

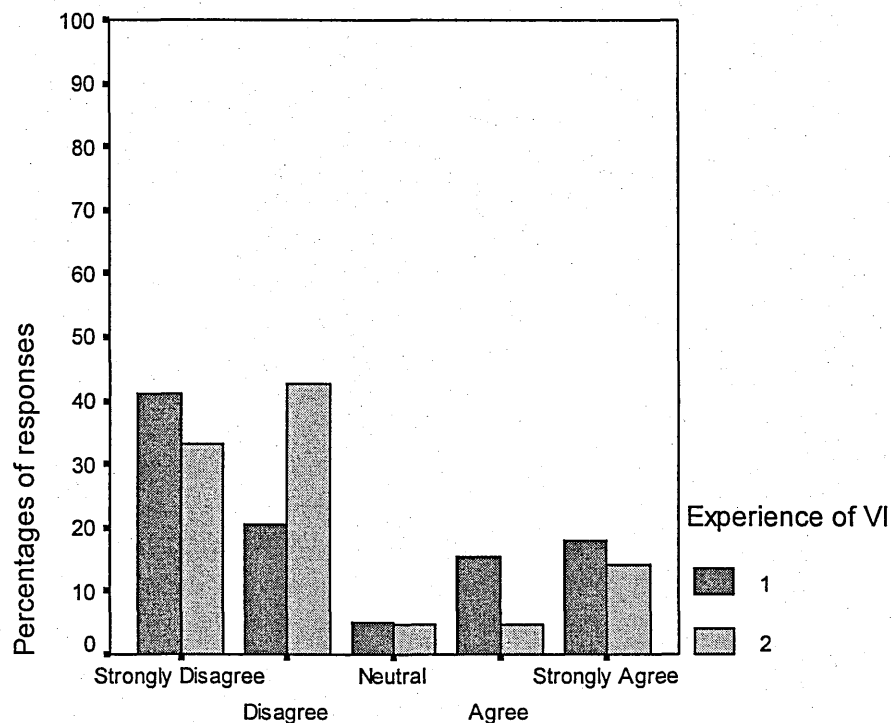
Figure 47: Distribution by experience of VI of responses to statement 'visually impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms'



In the Mann-Whitney test of difference by experience the results indicated no significant difference ( $p = 0.145$ ).

For the attitude statement 'hearing impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms' again a variety of responses were recorded with the majority of scores being negative. However, proportionately more participants with experience recorded more positive responses than participants without experience. See Figure 48.

Figure 48: Distribution by experience of vi of responses to statement 'hearing impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms'



In the Mann-Whitney test of difference by experience the results indicated no significant difference ( $p = 0.833$ ).

Summary

The Mann-Whitney test of difference was conducted to find out whether there was a significant difference between participants with and participants without experience in terms of attitudes. The findings recorded no significant difference in all attitude statements.



In relation to the attitude statement '*education is a fundamental right for all children including those with disabilities*', there was overwhelming agreement. However, in relation to the inclusion of pupils with particular difficulties the results were more mixed or do not support the case that teachers with experience have more positive attitudes.

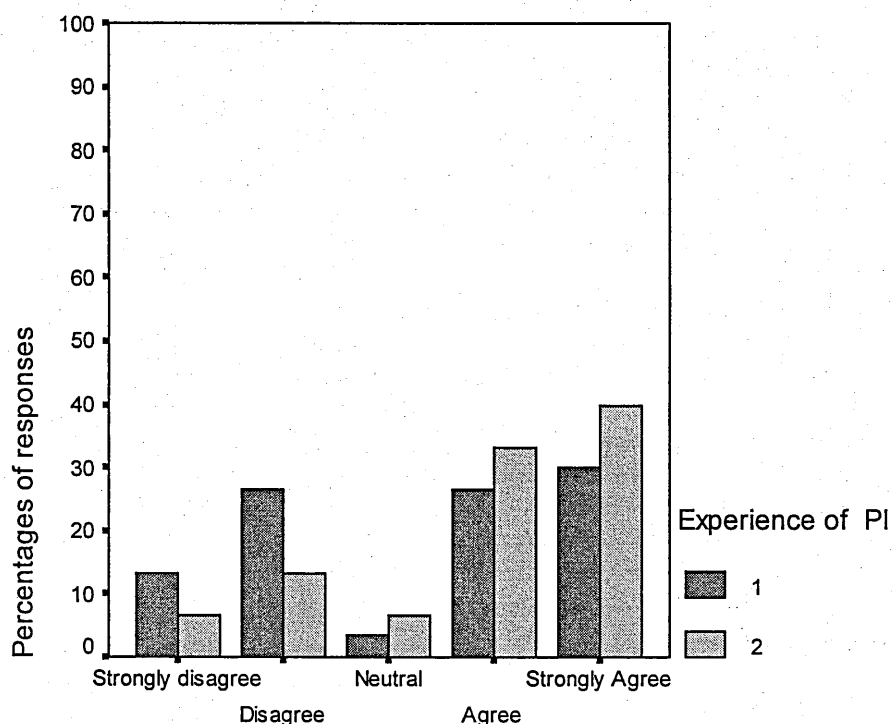
These findings were not consistent with some previous studies' findings (Ferley, 1991; Millar, 1996; Kasonde-Ng'andu, 2001) which indicate that participants with experience usually score high responses on issues of attitudes and inclusion for pupils with visual impairments.

The next in the series is the analysis of seven attitudes statements by experience of pupils with physical impairments.

### Experience with physical impairment

For the attitude statement 'all pupils should be educated in the general education classrooms to the greatest extent possible', a variety of opinions were recorded. However, proportionately more participants without experience gave more positive responses than those with experience. See Figure 49. The majority of people agreed, but not overwhelmingly so.

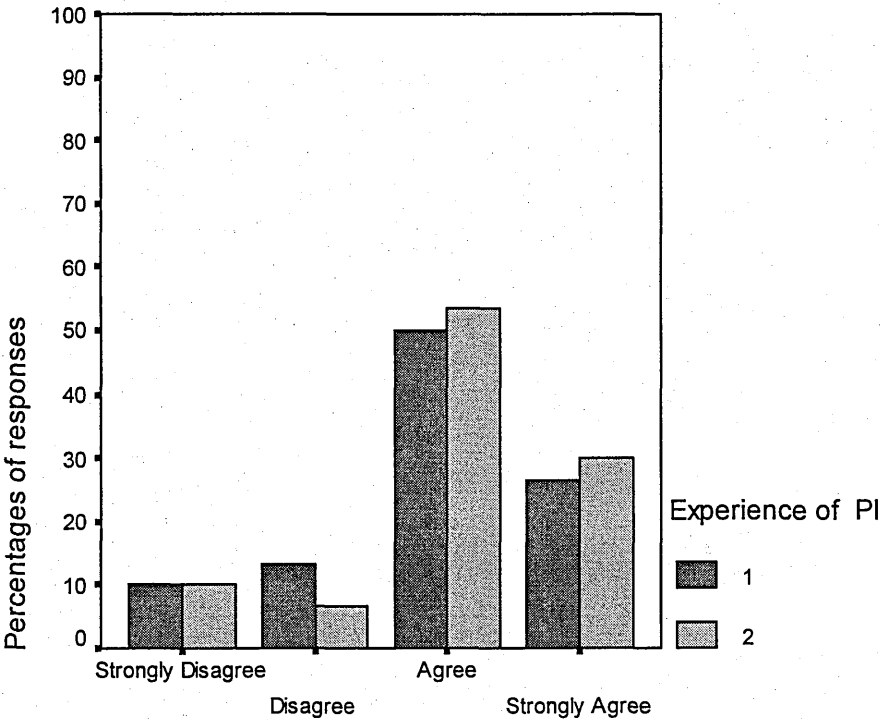
Figure 49: Distribution by experience of PI of responses to statement 'all pupils should be educated in the general education to the greatest extent possible'



In the Mann-Whitney test of difference by experience the results indicated no significant difference ( $p = 0.180$ ).

For the attitude statement, all class teachers should have the primary responsibility for the education of all pupils including those with disabilities in their classrooms', proportionately more participants without experience scored more positive responses than those with experience. See Figure 50. Most people were in agreement.

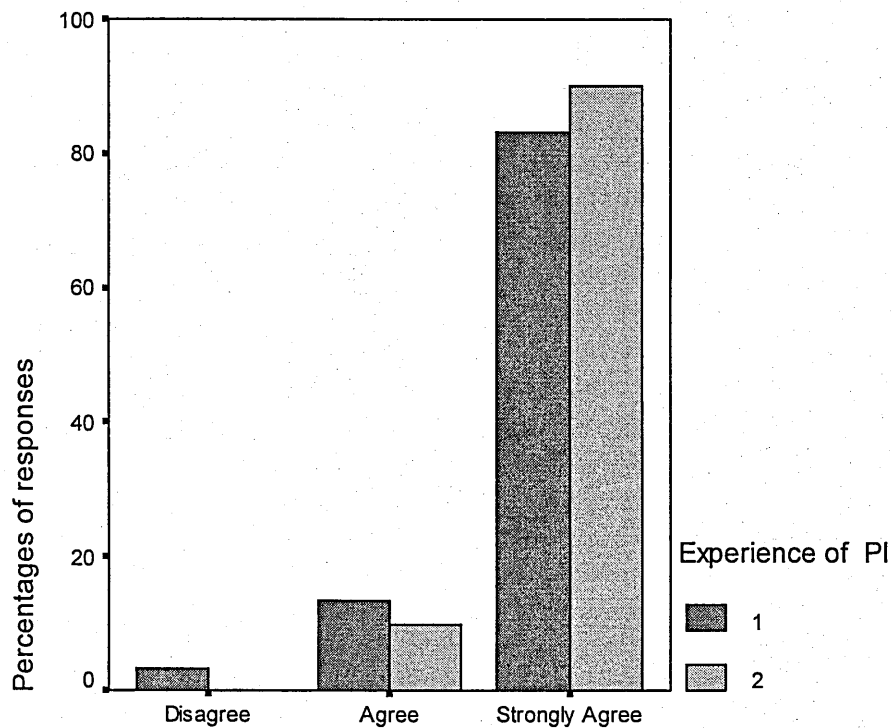
Figure 50: Distribution by experience of PI of responses to statement 'all class teachers should have the primary responsibility for the education of all pupils including those with disabilities in their classrooms'



In the Mann-Whitney test by experience the results indicated no significant difference ( $p = 0.622$ ).

For the attitude statement 'education is a fundamental right for all children including those with disabilities', both participants with and those without experience were in favour of the statement. See Figure 51.

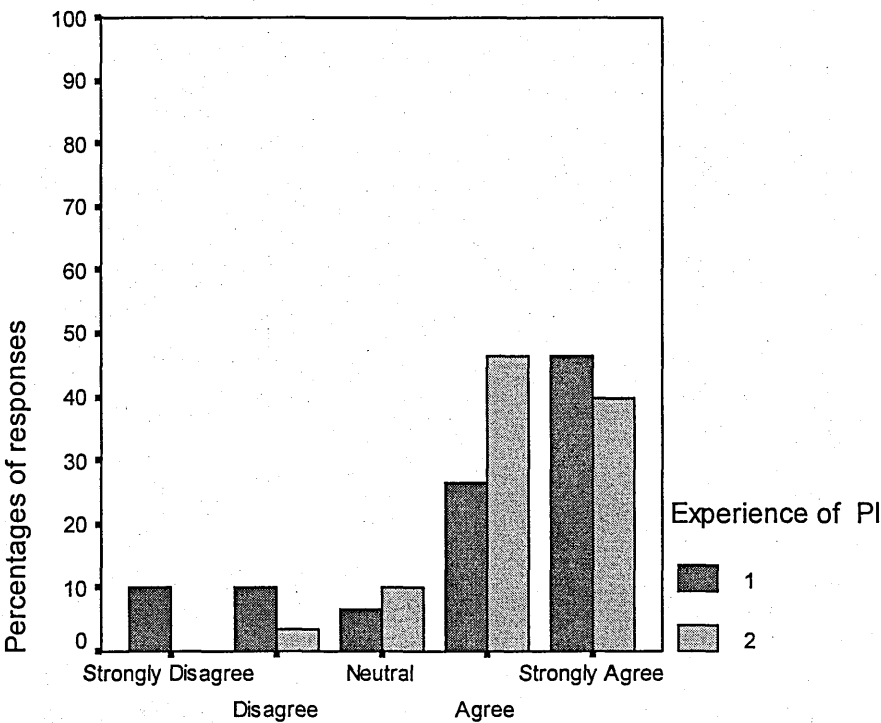
Figure 51: Distribution by experience of PI of responses to statement 'education is a fundamental right to all children including those with disabilities'



In the Mann-Whitney test of difference by experience the results indicated no significant difference ( $p = 0.430$ ).

For the attitude statement 'physically disabled pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms' proportionately more participants without experience scored more positive responses than participants with experience. See Figure 52. Most people were in agreement.

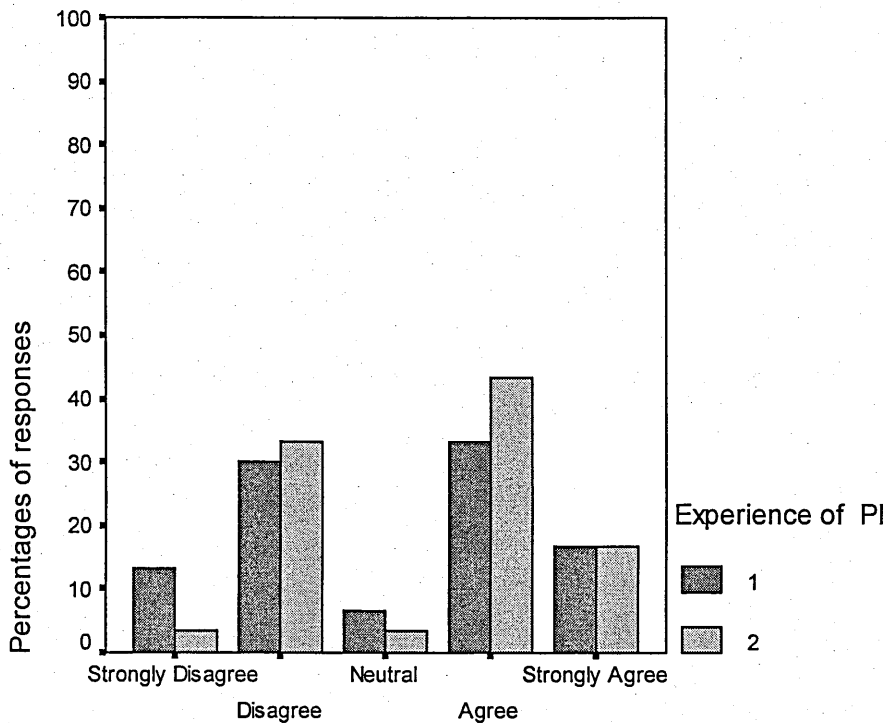
Figure 52: Distribution by experience of PI of responses to statement 'physically disabled pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms'



In the Mann-Whitney test of difference by experience the results indicated no significant difference ( $p = 0.757$ ).

For the attitude statement 'intellectually impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms' proportionately more participants without experience scored more positive responses than those with experience. See Figure 52. The results were very mixed.

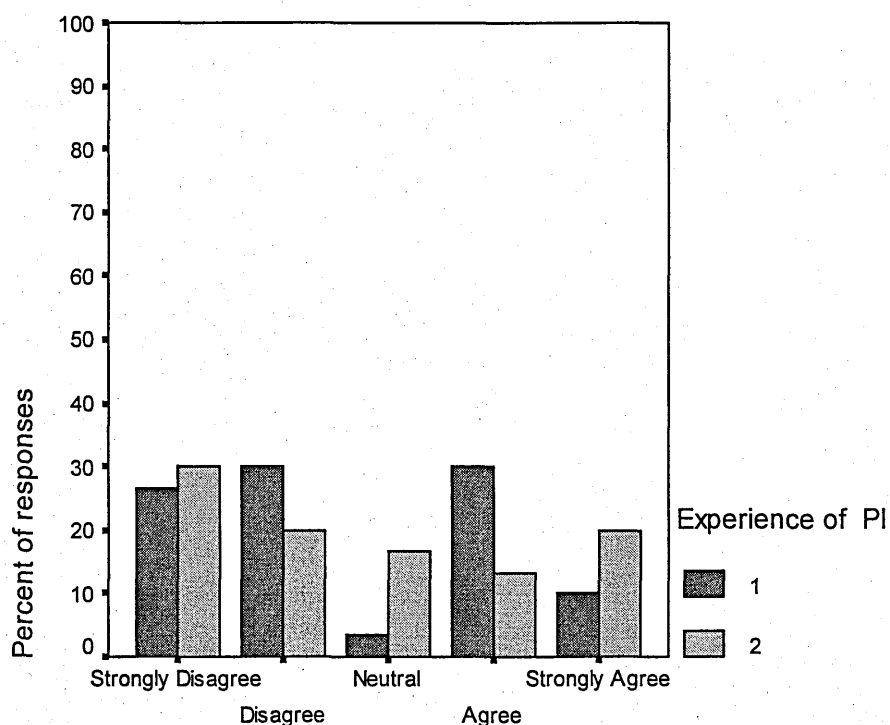
Figure 53: Distribution by experience of PI of responses to statement 'intellectually impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms'



In the Mann-Whitney test of difference by experience the results indicated no significant difference ( $p = 0.451$ ).

For the attitude statement 'visually impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms' participants expressed a variety of opinions with the majority disagreeing. However, results were very mixed. The majority of responses were neutral or negative. See Figure 54.

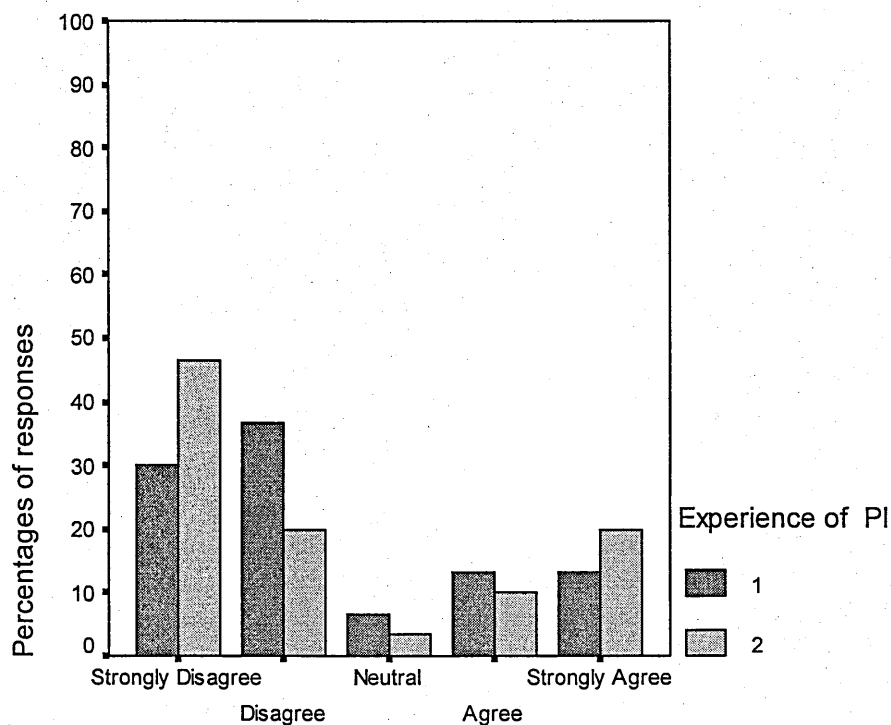
Figure 54: Distribution of by experience of PI responses to statement 'visually impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms'



In the Mann-Whitney test of difference by experience the results indicated no significant difference ( $p = 0.885$ ).

For the attitude statement 'hearing impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms' the results were mixed with the majority of scores being negative. However, participants without experience scored slightly more positive responses than those with experience. See Figure 55.

Figure 55: Distribution by experience of PI of responses to statement 'hearing impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms'



In the Mann-Whitney test of difference by experience the results indicated no significant difference ( $p = 0.547$ ).

Summary

The Mann-Whitney test of difference was conducted to find out whether there was significant difference between participants with and without experience in attitudes towards inclusive education in Zambia. The findings indicated no significant difference between the two groups in all the seven attitudes statements.



According to the findings of this section, there was some division in opinion with the majority of responses in relation to hearing, visual, intellectual impairments being negative. Attitudes to the inclusion of children with physical impairments were overwhelmingly positive, from those with and without experience.

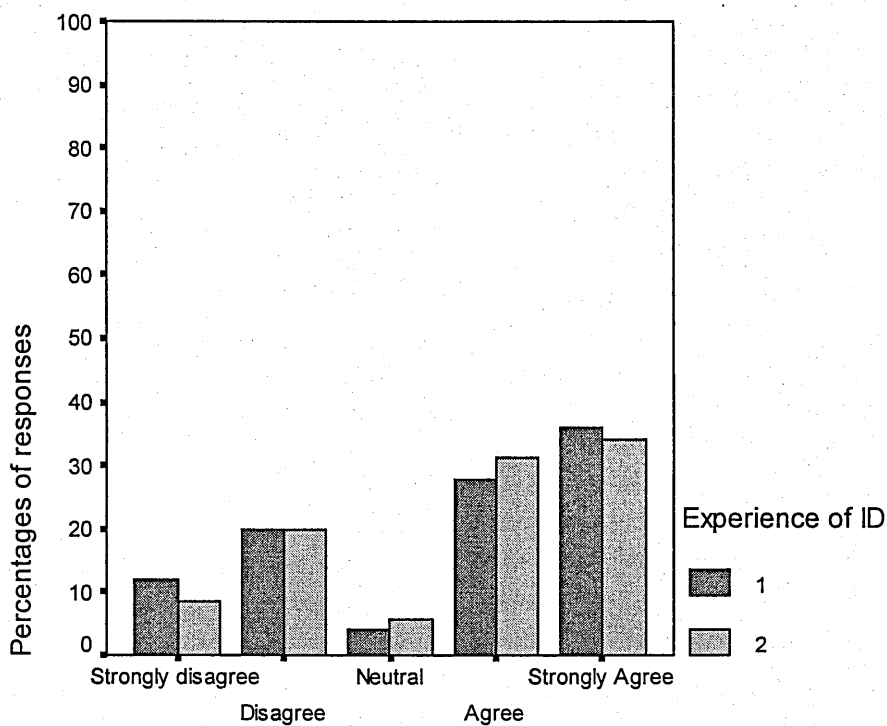
There was no consensus between the results of this study and the findings of previous studies on attitudes and inclusion conducted in other parts of the world (Salah, 1996; Moberg, 1997), which indicate that participants with experience recorded more positive responses towards the inclusion of pupils with physical impairments in the general education classrooms than those without experience.

What follows is the analysis of the seven attitudes statements experience with intellectual impairment.

*Experience with intellectual impairment*

For the attitude statement 'all pupils should be educated in the general education classrooms to the greatest extent possible', the results indicated a variety of responses. However, both participants with and without experience tended to record positive responses. See Figure 56.

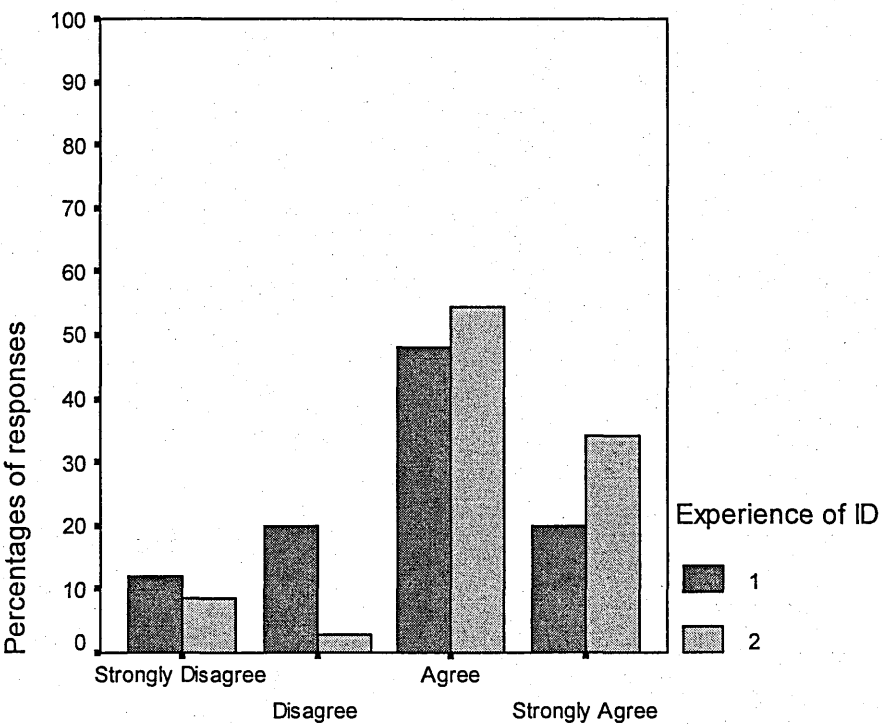
*Figure 56: Distribution by experience of ID of responses to statement 'all pupils should be educated in the general education to the greatest extent possible'*



In the Mann-Whitney test by experience the results indicated no significant difference ( $p = 0.925$ ).

For the attitude statement, all class teachers should have the primary responsibility for the education of all pupils including those with disabilities in their classrooms', proportionately more participants without experience scored more positive responses than participants with experience. See Figure 57. Most people were in agreement.

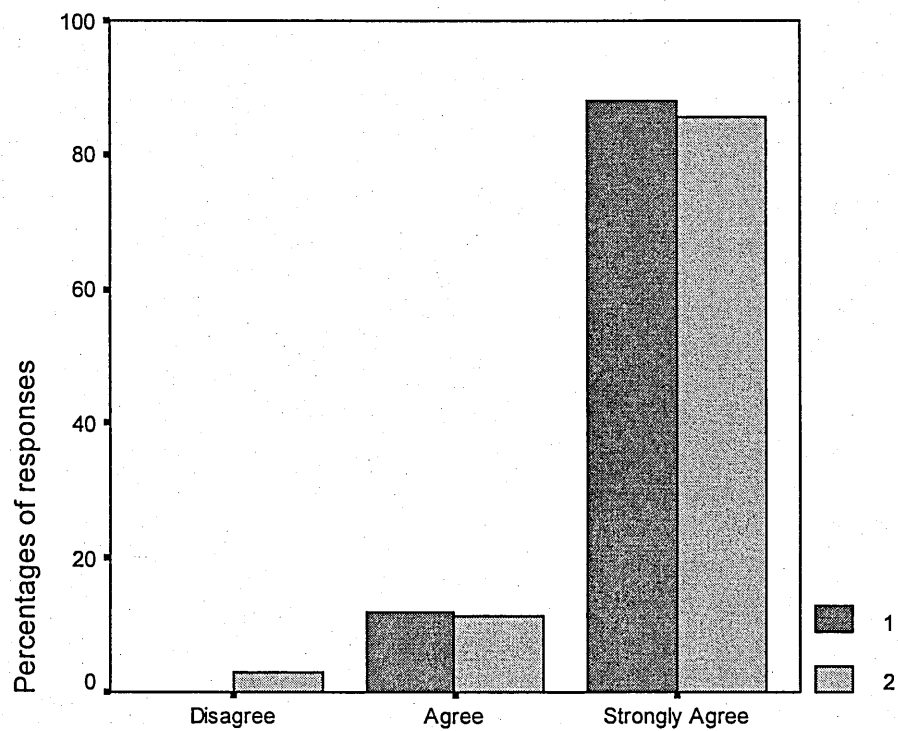
Figure 57: Distribution by experience of ID of responses to statement 'all class teachers should have the primary responsibility for the education of all pupils including those with disabilities in their classrooms'



In the Mann-Whitney test the results indicated no significant difference ( $p = 0.075$ ).

For the attitude statement 'education is a fundamental right for all children including those with disabilities', both participants with and without experience tended to record positive responses with very few without experience recording negative views. See Figure 58.

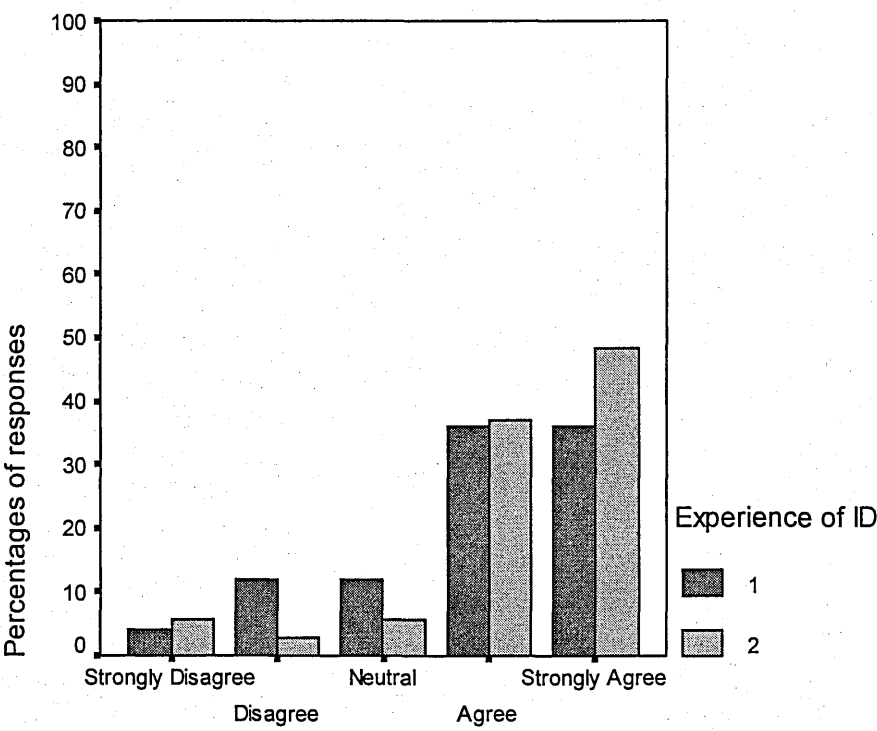
Figure 58: Distribution by experience of ID of responses to statement 'education is a fundamental right to all children including those with disabilities'



In the Mann-Whitney test of difference by experience the results indicated no significant difference ( $p = 0.770$ ).

For the attitude statement 'physically disabled pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms' proportionately more participants without experience scored more positive responses than participants with experience. See Figure 59.

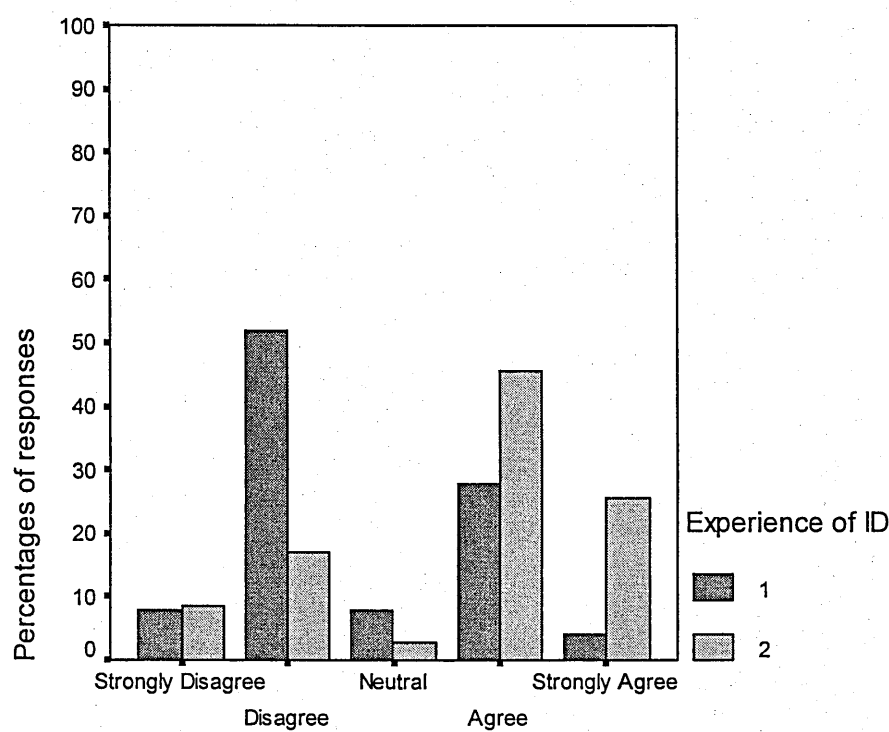
Figure 59: Distribution by experience of ID of responses to statement 'physically disabled pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms'



In the Mann-Whitney test of difference by experience the results indicated no significant difference ( $p = 0.228$ ). The overwhelming majority were in agreement.

For the attitude statement 'intellectually impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms' proportionately more participants without experience scored more positive responses than participants with experience. Some responses were negative. See Figure 60.

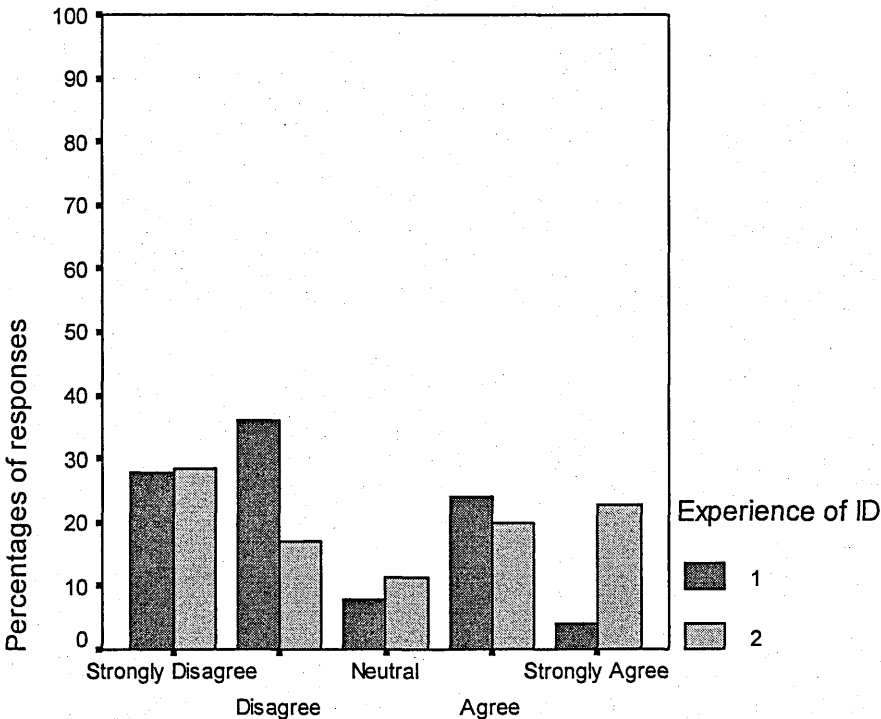
Figure 60: Distribution by experience of ID of responses to statement 'intellectually impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms'



In the Mann-Whitney test of difference by experience the results indicated significant difference ( $p = 0.004$ ). Interestingly, those without experience were significantly more positive.

For the attitude statement '*visually impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms*' participants expressed a variety of opinions regarding the inclusion of pupils with visual impairments in the general education classrooms with majority of responses falling in disagreeing and strongly disagreeing. However, proportionately more participants without experience scored more positive responses than participants with experience. See Figure 61. Most people were neutral or in disagreement.

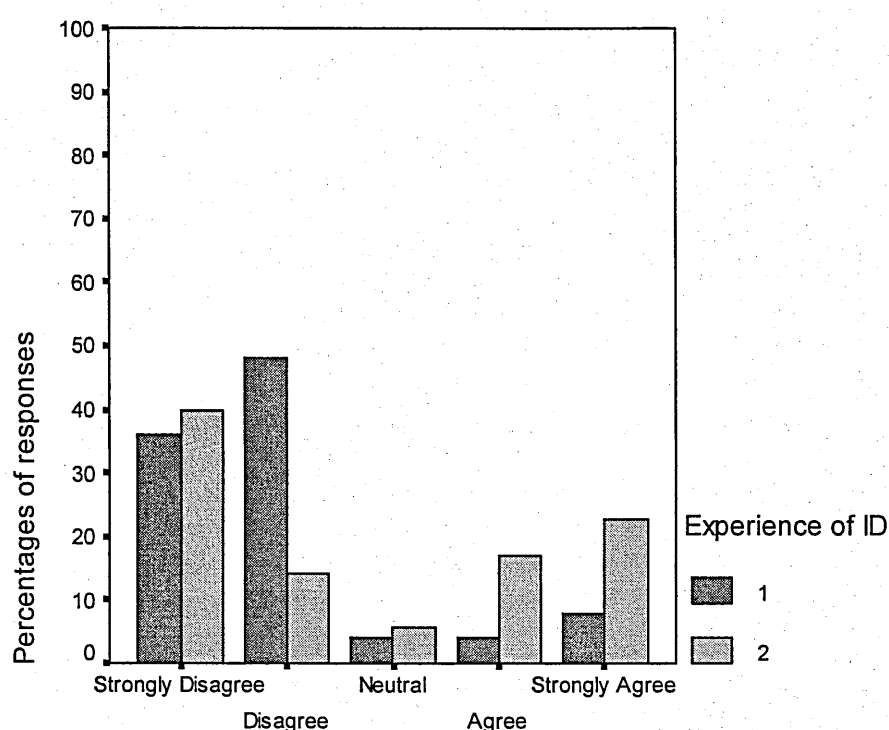
Figure 61: Distribution by experience of ID of responses to statement '*visually impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms*'



In the Mann-Whitney test of difference by experience the results indicated no significant difference ( $p = 0.233$ ).

For the attitude statement 'hearing impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms' a variety of opinions were noted with the majority of responses being negative. However, proportionately more participants without experience were more positive responses than participants with experience. See Figure 62

Figure 62: Distribution by experience of ID of responses to statement 'hearing impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms'



In the Mann-Whitney test of difference by experience the results indicated no significant difference ( $p = 0.269$ ).

## Summary

The Mann-Whitney test of difference was conducted to find out whether there was significant difference between participants with and participants without experience. The finding recorded no significant difference.



With regards to the attitude statement education is a fundamental right for all children including those with disabilities' there was almost total agreement.

The findings of this section clearly demonstrate that participants without experience were more positive than participants with experience in relation to the inclusion of pupils with intellectual, visual and hearing impairment, although overall participants were negative.

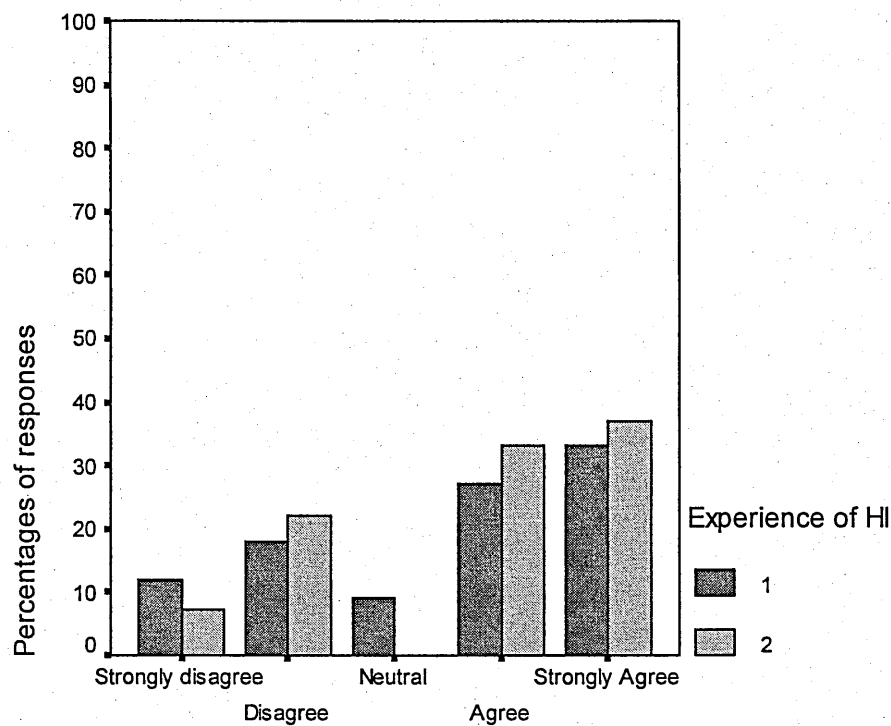
The present findings do not support the findings of previous studies conducted in some parts of the world (Galís, 1994; Millar, 1996) which report that teachers with experience score more positive responses on the inclusion of pupils with intellectual disabilities in the general education classrooms.

The following section analyses the seven attitudes statements according to experience of hearing impairments.

*Experience with hearing impairment*

For the attitude statement 'all pupils should be educated in the general education classrooms to the greatest extent possible', participants indicated a variety of responses regarding the inclusion of pupils with hearing impairments. However, both participants without experience scored more positive responses than participants with experience. See Figure 63.

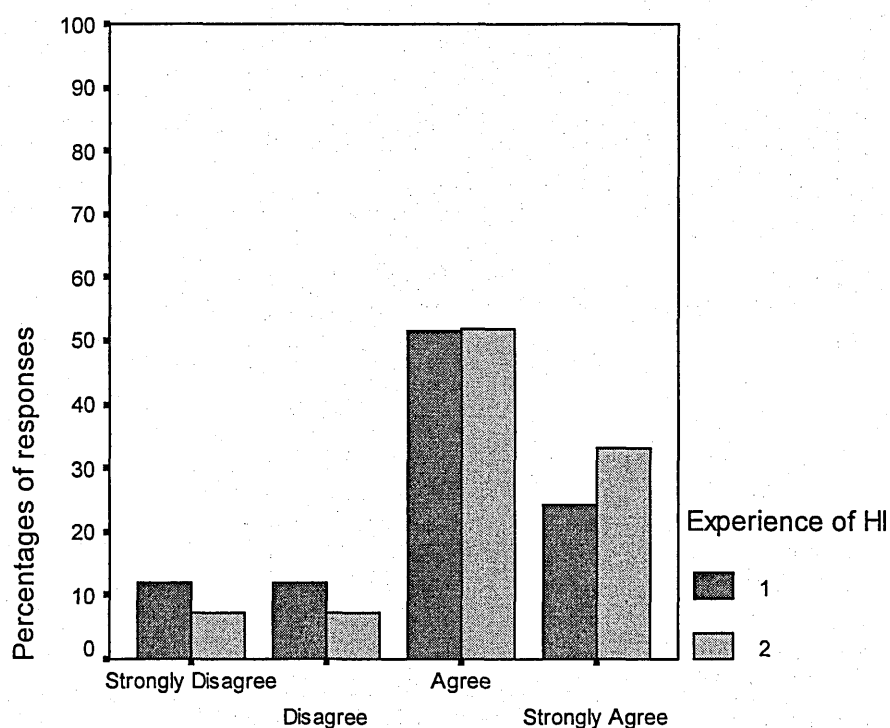
Figure 63: Distribution by experience of HI of responses to statement 'all pupils should be educated in the general education to the greatest extent possible'



In the Mann-Whitney test of difference by experience the results indicated no significant difference ( $p = 0.609$ ).

For the attitude statement, all class teachers should have the primary responsibility for the education of all pupils including those with disabilities in their classrooms', proportionately more participants without experience scored more positive responses than participants with experience. See Figure 64.

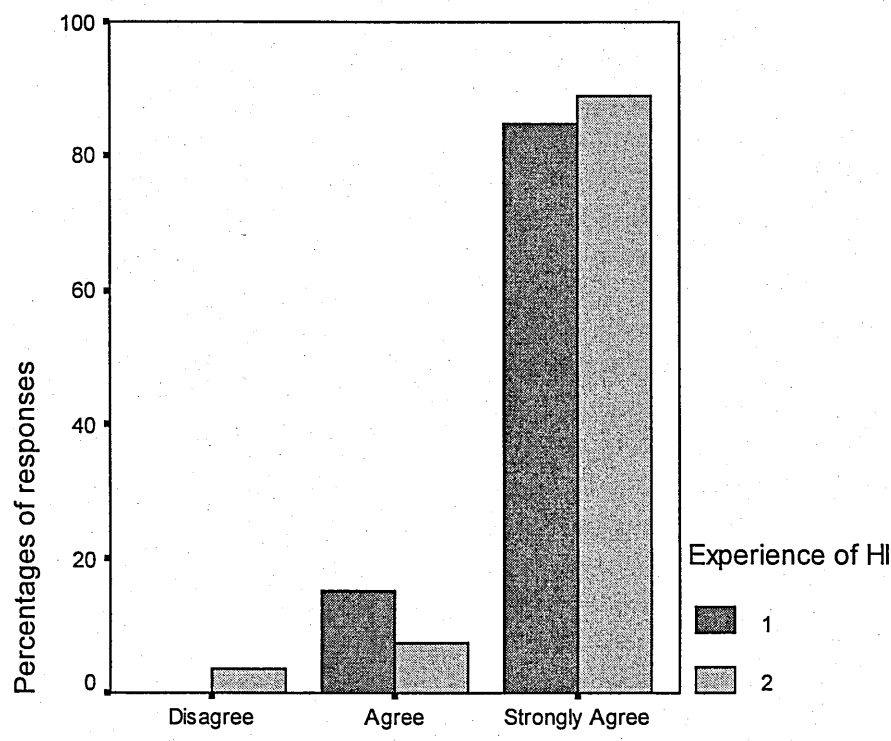
Figure 64: Distribution by experience of HI of responses to statement 'all class teachers should have the primary responsibility for the education of all pupils including those with disabilities in their classrooms'



In the Mann-Whitney test of difference by experience the results indicated no significant difference ( $p = 0.310$ ).

For the attitude statement 'education is a fundamental right for all children including those with disabilities', overwhelmingly, participants scored positive responses. See Figure 65.

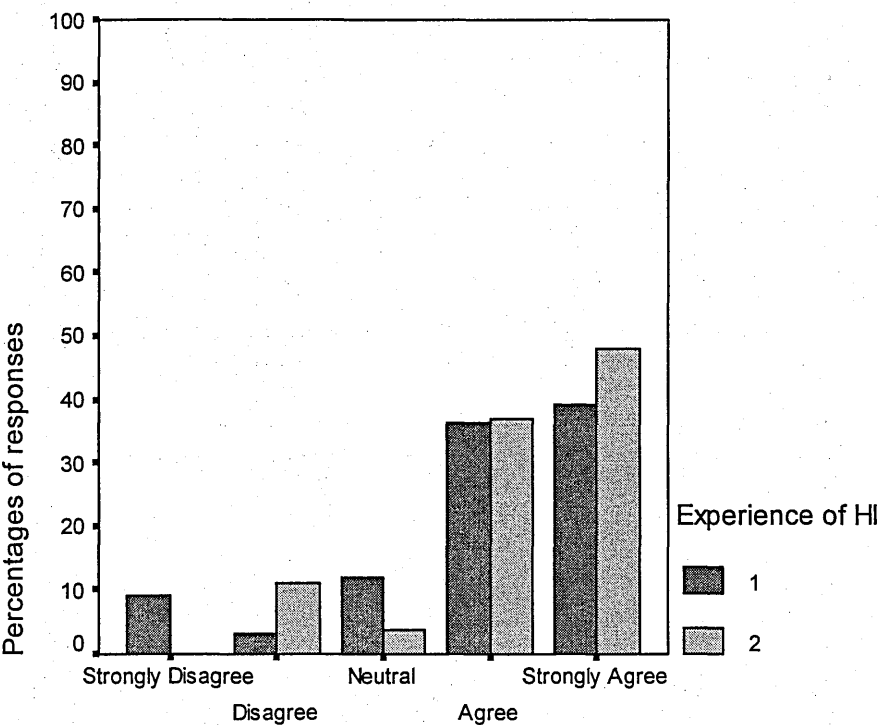
Figure 65: Distribution by experience of HI of responses to statement 'education is a fundamental right to all children including those with disabilities'



In the Mann-Whitney test of difference by experience the results indicated no significant difference ( $p = 0.696$ ).

For the attitude statement 'physically disabled pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms' proportionately more participants without experience scored more positive responses than participants with experience. See Figure 66.

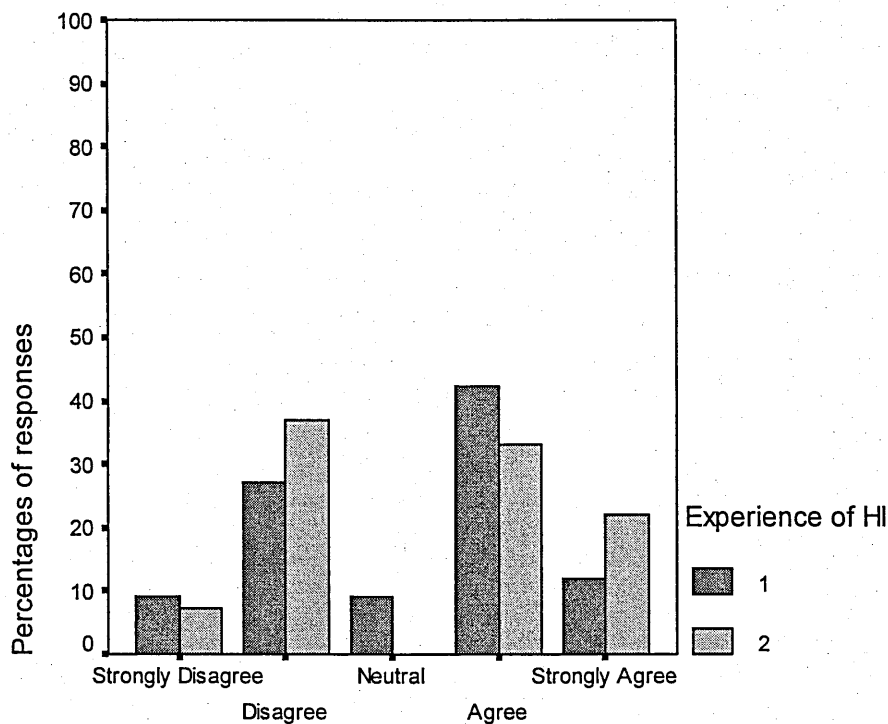
Figure 66: Distribution by experience of HI of responses to statement 'physically disabled pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms'



In the Mann-Whitney test of difference by experience the results indicated no significant difference ( $p = 0.376$ ).

For the attitude statement 'intellectually impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms' a variety of opinions were expressed regarding the inclusion of pupils with intellectual impairments in the general education classrooms with some scores falling in the negative grid. However, responses were equally divided between positive and negative. See Figure 67.

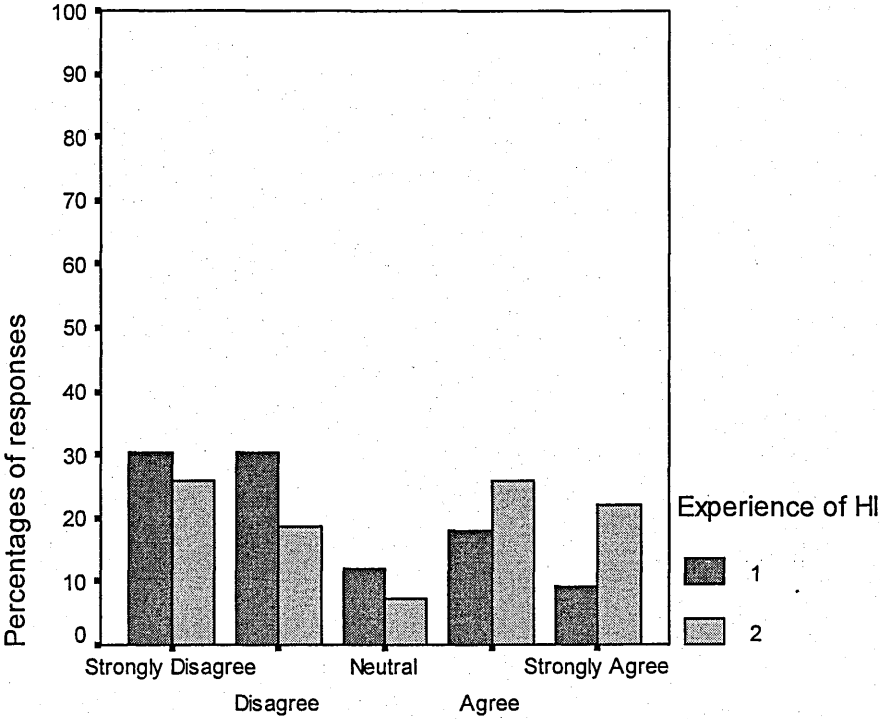
Figure 67: Distribution by experience of HI of responses to statement 'intellectually impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms'



In the Mann-Whitney test of difference by experience the results indicated no significant difference ( $p = 0.797$ ).

For the attitude statement 'visually impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms' a variety of opinions were expressed regarding the inclusion of pupils with visual impairments with the majority of responses being negative. However, proportionately more participants without experience recorded more positive responses than participants with experience. See Figure 68. The majority of responses tended to be negative.

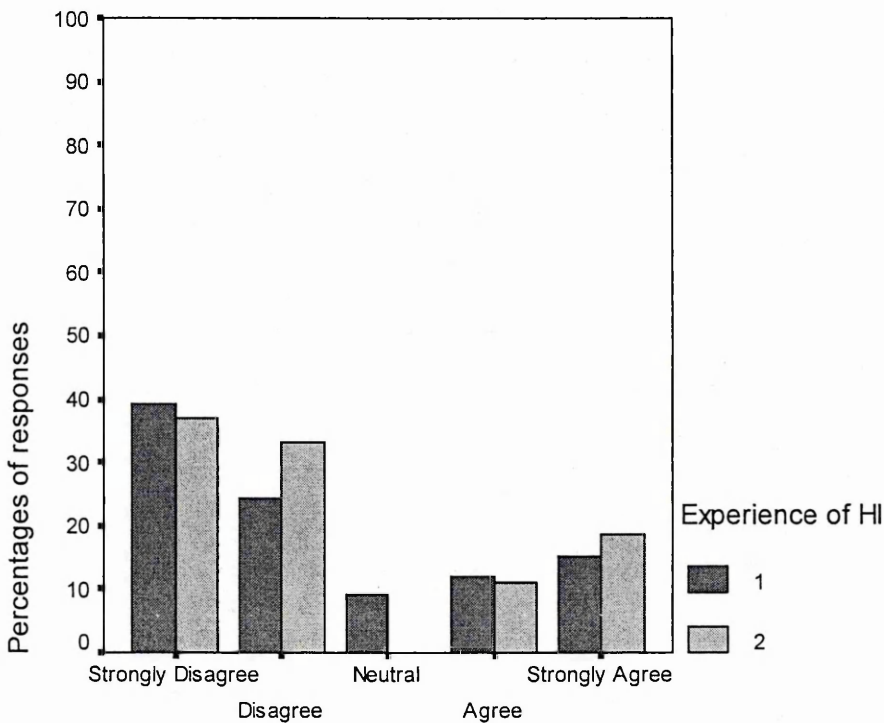
Figure 68: Distribution by experience of HI of responses to statement 'visually impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms'



In the Mann-Whitney test of difference by experience the results indicated no significant difference ( $p = 0.187$ ).

For the attitude statement 'hearing impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms' a variety of responses were noted regarding the inclusion of pupils with hearing impairments with the majority of responses being negative. However, proportionately more participants without experience scored slightly more positive responses than participants with experience. See Figure 69. Overwhelmingly responses were negative.

Figure 69: Distribution by experience of HI of responses to statement 'hearing impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms'



In the Mann-Whitney test of difference by experience the results indicated no significant difference ( $p = 0.963$ ).

### Summary

The Mann-Whitney test of difference was conducted to find out whether there was a significant difference between the two groups, thus participants with and without experience. The findings recorded no significant difference.



The attitude statement 'education is a fundamental right for all children including those with disabilities' received overwhelming agreement.

The findings of this section, clearly demonstrate that participants without experience recorded more positive responses than participants with experience. However, in relation to particular difficulties responses overall were negative and mirror the patterns seen earlier in this study. Experience does not appear significantly to affect attitudes to the inclusion of pupils with difficulties in general terms.

The present findings do not support previous studies findings (Arrington, 1992; Galis, 1994; Millar, 1996; Kasonde-Ng'andu, 2001) which indicate that participants with experience usually score more positive responses on inclusion of pupils with hearing impairments than those without experience.

The analysis of experience of HI marks the final section of the quantitative data analysis.

## **Qualitative data analysis**

### *Interview results and analysis*

I administered the interview schedule to eight respondents during the months of October to December, 2002. Each interview session took 30 to 45 minutes and the language used was English, which in Zambia is treated as official and as a medium of instruction in all institutions of learning. To allow for collection of as much relevant information as possible the interviews were not tightly structured. Therefore, relevant issues which were not included in the interview guide but arose during the process of conducting interviews were explored and noted down in prompt supplementary questions. This was in line with the flexible nature of qualitative research (Nkhosha, 1999). Follow up, probing questions were also asked for elaboration or in order to seek clarification. It was hoped that this information would help me to see both how different types of people felt about the issue being examined and how they interpreted the findings in their own perspective.

During the interviews, a tape recorder was used to record data. This technique is very common when conducting interviews (Yin, 1993). Permission was sought from each school and individuals beforehand. It is interesting to note that all the interviewees were very open to the use of tape recorder. All interviews were conducted individually and each interviewee was assured that the interviews would be treated with confidentiality and information collected used for purely research. The interviews were transcribed and a thematic analysis was carried out.

From each school, four respondents were sampled using a purposive approach. These were four class teachers and two specialist senior teachers, who were directly involved in teaching children with disabilities, although earlier on

they had trained as mainstream teachers. The other two respondents were heads of each school, thus making a total of eight respondents (see table below):

#### **Woodlands 'A' Basic School**

<b>Respondents</b>	<b>Position held</b>	<b>Qualifications</b>	<b>Teaching Experience</b>
One	Head-teacher	B.A. with Ed.	24 years
One	Senior-teacher	Dip in Sp. Ed	18 years
Two	Class teachers	Dip in Sp. Ed	16 & 22 yrs respectively

#### **Mwashhi Basic School**

<b>Respondents</b>	<b>Position held</b>	<b>Qualifications</b>	<b>Teaching Experience</b>
One	Acting Head-teacher	Dip in Sp. Ed	24 years
Two	Class teacher	Dip with Ed	17 & 23 yrs respectively
One	Senior-teacher	Cert. in Prim. Ed	25

One senior teacher at Mwashhi Basic School had a child with a learning disability who later acquired skills in poultry farming, earning himself a minimal wage of K60,000 per month (about £10.00 at the time).

From the above description, it could be assumed that respondents were equipped with knowledge and experience in the researched field. The semi-structured interview revolved around the three issues and themes; disabilities, inclusive education and factors that may promote/enhance inclusive education.

Below is a description of findings. The term respondents and interviewees are used in this project interchangeably in referring to the target group that participated in the interviews.

## *Description of the findings*

### **Teaching Experience**

All interviewees were long serving teachers. They started teaching between 1979 to 1989. Their long teaching experience runs from 14 to 24 years. Arising from their teaching and administrative experience, a lot of interviewees had taught mainly grades one to seven, while a few of them taught children in the upper basic (grades eight and nine) as well. In addition, the basic age range of children these teachers taught was seven to sixteen years. However, in two cases, respondents had taught children in the four to twenty one years age range. One respondent had taught pre-schoolers with the age range of three to six years. Nearly every teacher had worked in both rural and urban areas.

### **Children with disability in the two schools**

The number of children with disabilities from one class to another ranged from two to eight. The two schools recorded forty two children with disabilities divided between the schools as follows: Mwashu Basic seventeen out of whom eight were boys while nine were girls. Woodlands 'A' Basic: five boys and twenty girls. The disabilities recorded included physical disabilities, intellectual disabilities, and autism, Down Syndrome, hyperactivity, cerebral palsy and hearing impairments.

Two observations are pertinent here. Firstly, these disabilities are quite diverse, thus calling for multi-teaching strategies. Secondly, disabilities such as Down Syndrome, autism and severe intellectual disabilities are deep rooted neurologically. This implies that the intensity of teaching to support the learning of these children cannot be compared with those students with physical disabilities.

Respondents were asked what they considered as advantages and disadvantages of teaching the disabled. Discussion of advantages focused on social inclusion:

- There is a sense of co-operation among the disabled and the non-disabled students, thus implementing the concept of give and take.
- The disabled comply with work assigned to them and derive joy from carrying out such activities.
- They also come to realize their place in society by attaining self-concept and self-esteem.
- Social integration enables the teacher to come close to the disabled children, thereby understanding their needs in a holistic fashion.
- The teacher can act as link between the disabled child and other stakeholders such as the school, parents and the extended environment. Irrational beliefs about the child's disability will be discarded because the teacher is able to sensitize the public, educate them on causal factors of such disabilities on behalf of the child.
- As the child's social outlook improves, society comes to appreciate the disabled child's existence.

On the reverse, some respondents viewed teaching the disabled as disadvantageous:

- There is a tendency for non-disabled people to stigmatize the disabled, thus, being distanced from main-stream society. In a school setting, this tendency disrupts their learning. They tend to lose confidence in themselves and are usually emotional as a defence mechanism.
- If teaching is rushed, most disabled children prove slow learners because of their academic inadequacies.

- Disabled children may not be regular in attending school; it could either be due to poor health or physical hindrances. This equally, slows down their pace of learning because there is learning time and instructional material lost.
- Usually resources are not readily and adequately available for the disabled children. This is coupled with the unfriendly infrastructure existing in most mainstream schools. Suitable amenities both for able bodied and disabled are far from being realized.
- Teaching the disabled is very demanding in terms of care, planning and implementing instructional material, more so in an inclusive education environment. It is tiresome and time-consuming to prepare work for each child basing on individual education programme approach.

#### **Classroom management and collaboration**

Regarding class management of both children with disabilities and non-disabled, various strategic views were expressed:

- the number of children should be small around twenty five (25) so that effective monitoring becomes possible.
- time allocated to each activity should be enough but should not be in excess, otherwise it will bore them. At the same time, activities themselves need to be exciting so that they are enjoyable.
- one to one teaching arrangements enable the teacher to execute his work effectively.
- the importance of disabled children's acceptance by the teacher. This phenomenon was rated as a cornerstone in teaching in an inclusive setting. As one respondent put it 'class management hinges on knowledge about disabled children, what their aspirations and needs are':

On a broader base, heads of schools pointed out, in relation to managing their schools:

- in order to harmonise various sectors of the school system, they have instilled a sense of unity into their members of staff. In order to achieve this, sensitization had been their mainstay, especially during staff meetings. Their emphasis has been on urging teachers and other school stakeholders to work as a united, effective team. Unless teachers and other school stakeholders work as a team, disabled children's learning may be jeopardized.
- Collaboration is one of the key components in an inclusive setting. All teachers should embrace and accept children regardless of whether or not they are disabled. In order to cushion the impact that may exist, for example where a special class forms part of mainstream school, all teachers should interact and visit their various learning environments.
- In order to enhance social interaction, sporting activities should be encouraged between able-bodied and disabled counterparts.

Class teachers equipped with knowledge and skills of teaching the disabled suggested a package for effective class management. One of the aspects is that of considering size of the class. They felt that if the class is too big, teacher-child interaction becomes problematic. Each child is unique, thus the teacher should have enough time with each child. They recommended one to one interaction. In the same vein, teachers were of the view that unless enough time is allocated to each activity, successful accomplishment would not be attained. However, time allocation should be regulated otherwise superfluous time would bore children who would lose direction.

The issue of accessibility to the mainstream curriculum and performance of children with disabilities, compared with their non-disabled counterparts, brought in differences of opinions. There was a division among respondents. One teacher put it that disabled children are able to perform even better than their non-disabled peers, an indication that disabled children have open access to the curriculum. Another respondent seemed to side with the earlier respondent but then added that their accessibility to the curriculum and good performance is dependent on the nature and degree of the child's disability.

Two interviewees held the view that if the disabled can achieve what is expected of them, then this is as a result of inclusion in the mainstream and not when these children are on their own. According to them this implies that inclusion of children with disabilities enables them to share instructional material, thus benefiting from non-disabled counterparts. Two respondents felt that if the disabled were to gain from the already alluded to curriculum, then teaching material should realistically be modified, aimed at adapting to their pace of learning and capacity of absorption.

At the extreme, two respondents strongly argued against disabled children having full access to the curriculum. The point being made here is that placement in a special class disqualifies some students from learning at the same pace with non-disabled peers. Therefore, at the end of the day, the amount of instructional material covered by the able-bodied would be superior to that of the disabled.

Among other things, social inclusion means the art of making friends. This is so because man is a social animal, thus he/she is gregarious. Therefore, respondents were asked about social inclusion levels of the disabled in relation with non-disabled children. Views expressed by them have



three strands. Three of the interviewees felt that disabled children experience social problems for the following reasons:

- Their early life is at times restrictive in a sense that they are hidden from public view. So when they tend to open up, they are usually shy and unco-operative.
- Secondly, when the disabled are mocked at or teased, they easily withdraw and feel rejected or discriminated against. Therefore, attitude change was advocated.

Three other respondents had mixed feelings. On one hand, they acknowledged the problems encountered by the disabled in the process of making friends. At the same time, they were quick to point out that the disabled have the ability to socially interact with the able-bodied counterparts. On the other hand, two respondents affirmed the ability of disabled children in making friends. They attributed this phenomenon to the home environment. It was argued that a friendly, caring home is a stepping stone to socially accommodating the disabled child once he/she joins a school. Children with intellectual disabilities (except those with Down Syndrome) were cited as those who easily and freely make friends and share school requisites amicably. Two points of view seem to emerge regarding social inclusion of the disabled especially those in the mainstream environment. One point concerns early home upbringing of the disabled child. Unless the child is loved, cared for in the home, coupled with exposure to the public, it would be socially difficult for the child to develop relationships with friends. The second point is attitude change. It is only when society comes to perceive the disabled as co-partners that one can talk of effective social inclusion.

## **Teaching children with disabilities in an inclusive setting**

The concept of inclusive education is welcome but it lacks adequate teaching personnel. It calls for retraining the existing old time teachers so that they are kept abreast with new strategic developments. One interviewee felt that the idea is good but the uniqueness of disabled children would give teachers a tough time. He cited a Zambian typical example of a class of 45 to 50 mainstream children. He strongly argued that if the disabled were included in such a class, possibilities for them to benefit from the curriculum would be highly debatable. The other concern expressed, while agreeing with the initiation of the concept, was about the school learning environment. From his experience, he was convinced that if the environment is harsh, successful inclusive education would not be realized but instead, it would do more harm than good to the disabled child.

Another sub theme addressed concerned the interviewees' contributions towards implementing inclusive education. One senior teacher advocated encouraging pupils to attend school regularly unless where otherwise stated. It was pointed out that rapport between the disabled child and teacher should be cemented as this would promote social integration.

Further, that sporting activities need to be planned and provided to both the disabled and the able-bodied. In a similar manner, a special teacher suggested that retraining of some teachers by organizing workshops and other related programmes would empower such human resource to effectively manage inclusive education classes. As much as possible, able-bodied children should be encouraged to accept and interact with the disabled.

Heads of schools took a broader stand in as far as their expected roles were concerned towards inclusive education. These roles included integration of the disabled with the able-bodied, assessing or monitoring children's progress in

terms of academic performance and social welfare. Those found to be making progress can be elevated to higher classes. It was felt that disabled children as much as possible should be encouraged to participate in groupwork, and discussions so that they are able to acquire knowledge and skills which would earn them mature and independent lives.

### **Acceptability of inclusion in Zambia**

In order to assess the popularity or rather acceptability of inclusive education in Zambian education system, below are the thoughts of respondents, starting with advantages. Disadvantages are considered later. Inclusion accommodates social inclusion among children of diverse backgrounds thus promoting knowledge sharing. The belief is also shared that as children socially interact they are coming out of their shells. This implies that any inferiority complex they might have harboured is being defeated. Eventually, the wider community would come to accept and acknowledge the existence of the disabled. Connected with the already alluded to considerations, it is also believed that teachers' attitude change may foster understanding of the disabled by society at large. Indeed in a classroom situation, inclusive education encourages competition among players.

As regards drawbacks to successful implementation of inclusive education the following are among the many. The concept does not seem to succeed in a lot of Zambian schools as the infrastructure is not friendly to the disabled, but this is also dependent on the nature and degree of each disability. It is also judged that planning for both the disabled alongside the able-bodied receives a low deal. Teachers do not have enough time to accommodate every child especially those with special educational needs in large classes. Attitude change advocated by teachers is debatable and gradual, so that in the process it is the disabled who

are disadvantaged. One interviewee, who had started teaching the disabled in 1994, challenged the advocates of inclusive education that inclusion for its own sake minus the necessary requisites poses more harm than good on the disabled children.

Once again it can be stated that despite the advantages pointed out about inclusive education as it exists in some Zambian schools where it has been piloted, there are still hurdles being encountered by the users of the approach. For example large classes of 40-50 children are detrimental to the performance of the disabled. From another view the advantages of inclusive education seem to outweigh its disadvantages. Therefore, ways and means must be sought in a bid to combat hindrances to its success.

Closely connected with advantages and disadvantages of inclusive education is the question of whether or not inclusion is promoting quality education in Zambia. Three of the interviewees were for quality education. Their argument was that, as long as inclusion paves the way for sharing ideas in a collaborative environment, one cannot doubt its success; after all the pupils are benefiting from the same curriculum and sharing the same school/class facilities.

Two other respondents argued that quality education arising from an inclusive approach is debatable. Their concern was attributed to teachers implementing the approach. They felt that, if teachers are not dedicated, coupled with inadequate training, disabled children are prone to getting a poor deal. One other respondent while agreeing with quality education, pointed out that positive results cannot be expected in the short term but would take longer as mainstream classes remain abnormally large, and the quality of education cannot be realized. So long as large classes prevail, concentration on the disabled becomes difficult.

### **Central government's contribution to inclusion**

In relation to the Zambian government's endeavours towards implementing an inclusive education initiative, Zambia is one of the signatories to Jomtien (1990), Education for All and the Salamanca (1994) declaration of inclusive education. She has an obligation to the declaration and so it was fitting for me to find out from respondents what Zambia's input must be. From what was collected, focus lay on one or two points. The main contribution was that the government should organize seminars and workshops at various levels of the education system so that teachers and other officers are reactivated. As an extension to the afore mentioned, sensitization should also reach parents and the community as a whole. Secondly, the need to include a special education component in pre- and in-service, teacher training colleges' curricula was emphasized. This would enable graduating teachers to be equipped with knowledge and skills of handling disabled children in an inclusive education environment. It was also pointed out that what should be included in college curricula should reflect the true picture of the Zambian situation. Thirdly, one respondent pointed out that weak areas in the implementation of inclusive education need to be spotted. These included improvements in the existing infrastructure, teaching personnel capable of managing inclusive education classes and provision of material resources. It was also strongly held that the government should improve on the size of existing mainstream classes so that they are less crowded, and allow more room for the disabled children. Finally, the government of Zambia was urged to come up with a deliberate policy that should ensure that all parents send their children with disabilities to school.

Although what the Zambian government has so far achieved towards implementing inclusive education did not emerge out

from the respondents, it has a bearing on what they have put forward. One would assume that there is not enough human resource to cope with the demands of inclusive education. Material resources are also in short supply as well as the existence of unfriendly infrastructure especially for children with physical disabilities and health impairments. Congestion still persists in most mainstream classes which hampers good and smooth learning atmosphere for the disabled children. Therefore, a reduction in the size of these classes would be welcome. Although government policy on the education of all children (Educating Our Future, 1996) has been put in place, there is a need to strengthen it, so that it compels all parents to enrol their disabled children in school. This would act as a safeguard against discriminating against the disabled in terms of education.

### **Parental involvement**

Time and again it has been said that involvement of parents in their children's education plays a pivotal role. Parents provide a link between home and school. Therefore, their input in this respect cannot be over-emphasized. From the respondents' point of view, what follows attempts to explain the nature and degree of parental involvement in school programmes. In one school, parents were observed meeting school requisites such as children's exercise books, uniforms, financial contributions and that those with various skills applied them to school activities at opportune and calculated times. One school head recalled and rated the input of parents in the running of the school as very good. He went on to explain how a team of parents through Parents' Teachers (PTA) employed three school workers to replace those who had been retired. These were sanitary officer, watchman and office orderly, all being paid from school funds. Another school head rated parental involvement as good and qualified it by stating that, at his

school, parents are very responsible over their disabled children as characterized by taking and collecting them to and from school. He also pointed out that parents are able to interact with teachers and liaise with the administration. These same parents are able to monitor their children's performance by checking their exercise books. In another development, another interviewee reported that parents' intervention in the school activities is characterized during P.T.A. and Open Day meetings and also when they visit school for consultations. For example a school water pump broke down, and parents were invited to help so that together they could find ways and means of resolving the problem. In another school, it was reported that parents participate in programme of activities drawn by the school. However, before a programme is implemented, parents concerned are invited to discuss and agree on the programme so that at the execution level both parties (parents and school) are aware of and conversant with, the programme. In this respect a bridge was built between home and school.

However, two interviewees recorded a contrary view. Both indicated that parental involvement in school affairs was quite minimal. They argued that some parents would only appear or visit school during the time of enrolment of their children and also during payment of P.T.A fees. To this effect, there was an assumption that lack of knowledge and understanding on the part of parents contributes to laxity in appreciating their children's performance. This implies in such a situation that the link between school and home is weak.

### **Rôle of the District Education Officer**

Finally, although not exhaustive, respondents were asked as to how much involvement the District Education Officer (DEO) has shown in contributing to the implementation of inclusive

education. Ideally, in the context of the Zambian education system, the office of the D.E.O provides a link between higher education offices (Provincial education office and the Ministry's headquarters) and the school base. Therefore, its input cannot be doubted. However, in response six interviewees acknowledged the D.E.O's involvement. They cited examples ranging from provision of material resources (e.g. books, laptops and space for initiating special classes), financial support relating to organizing sensitization seminars and workshops. One beneficiary confirmed that the D.E.O was helpful especially when school needs were submitted to his/her office for action. He added that such provisions usually cut across or benefit all children, regardless of whether one was disabled or not.

One interviewee wondered whether or not the office of the D.E.O was functional for the reason that he had never been visited or rather inspected in order to assess the quality of education he had been offering and the problems he was going through.

As already referred to, the office of the D.E.O is quite influential and as such more needs to be done especially in the area of providing necessary resources. The arm of the inspectorate (which falls under the D.E.O's office) is professionally instituted, and among other things should be seen making checks and balances on teachers. It is rational to state that no individual is perfect in what one does, thus there is absolute need for teachers to be evaluated in their operations. When one realizes that inclusive education in Zambia is still in its infancy phase, there is a dire need for the D.E.O to strengthen its functionaries.

## **Summary**

This study was conducted in Zambia and from a cross section of those involved in teaching and managing inclusive



education institutions. Therefore, their experience can be taken at face value. It has been observed that children included in mainstream classes have diverse disabilities, some neurological implications while others suffer from physical disabilities. This situation calls for a wide base of teaching strategies in order for all children to benefit from the prevailing education system.

Education practitioners, while acknowledging the reality of teaching the disabled, have at the same time made observations which should not be overlooked or belittled. In order for teachers to execute their responsibilities efficiently and with resounding success, they need to be equipped with necessary knowledge and skills so that in turn disabled children can have access to mainstream curricula.

The focus of this study has been inclusive education. Therefore the study has made attempts to capture views about its existence and the level it has so far attained in some Zambian schools. Although the catchment area for data collection was not very wide, based on the sampled schools, one would endorse that the concept has been welcome, save various observations which have been made. It is strongly argued, for example, that in order for inclusive education in Zambia to grow, both human and material resources must be adequately trained and procured respectively. In this direction, concerted efforts must be seen to be at work. It must be emphasized that for inclusive education to reach expected standards, collective responsibility must be the order of the day. A cross section of stakeholders must put their heads together in order to foster its development. These include parents, school, and structured education offices up to the Ministry of Education headquarters. Besides, the general public must also be seen to make input especially in terms of attitude.

## **Chapter 7      Discussion of the findings**

### **Introduction:**

Although research on teachers' attitudes towards inclusion for children with disabilities has been on the increase in the last decade, research is needed to examine additional factors which influence the formation of positive attitudes towards inclusion. For example, more specific information should be gathered about the quality of the training opportunities that teachers need or had in implementing inclusion with regard to their duration, content and intensity, as well as about the quality of their experiences with different groups learners with disabilities. Training, whether at the pre- or in-service level is an important factor in modifying teachers' attitudes.

As will be highlighted below, the results of the current research showed a conflict in teachers' attitudes towards the principles and practice of inclusion. For instance teachers overwhelmingly agreed with the three principles of inclusion:

- 'all pupils should be educated in the general education classrooms to the greatest extent possible';
- 'all class teachers should have the primary responsibility for education of all pupils including those with disabilities in their general education classroom';
- 'education is a fundamental right for all children including those with disabilities'.

The practice discussed in this study relates to 'physically/intellectually/visually/hearing impaired pupils having the right to be educated in general education classrooms. It is at this point that there is a spread of

opinion from participants, despite them agreeing with the principles of inclusion. For some groups, for example hearing impaired and visually impaired, attitudes to inclusion were largely negative. It is particularly serious where head-teachers were negative to inclusion. This is so because the success of inclusion largely depends on the head-teachers' influence over their teaching staff. Head-teachers are the executives of the school and control admission of pupils.

### **Constraints on the interpretation of findings**

In the present study, Zambian teachers, are generally positive towards the idea of inclusive education for children with disabilities despite being born in a society where attitudes have been negative. This finding makes me as a researcher, raise some issues. Perhaps it could have some bearing on the subsequent observations. Regarding Mwash Basic School, Kabwe. I was in Kabwe for 20 years, the government house in which I lived was close to the named school, and I taught for 14 years at the same school with most of the teachers who were still working there at the time of this study. Some of these have risen to managerial positions as head-teachers, deputy head-teachers and senior teachers. While at Mwash Basic School I persuaded some teachers to upgrade themselves by going for special training including those trained at Nkhruma Teachers' College. These factors make me speculate that probably participants were trying to appease me. It would be seen as disrespectful to say or express anything to the contrary. Regarding Woodlands A Basic School, Lusaka, many participants in this study have observed me going to their school for supervising student teachers from ZAMISE on teaching practice. Further, I taught some of them at Nkhruma Teachers' College and ZAMISE. Once again perhaps these considerations could have influenced

their positive responses in the study. However, they do explain the negative responses towards some disabilities.

## **Discussion of themes**

The research findings in terms of the summary of descriptive statistics are discussed under the following themes in relation to attitudes of participants towards inclusive education:

- How education should be,
- Attitudes to disability and pupils' rights,
- Teaching experience and
- How education is.

### *How education should be*

The participants of this study came from the SADC region. Drawing from the findings, results indicate that some participants in the sample expressed the view that general education should be made available to all pupils and by so doing all pupils should be educated in the general education classrooms unless otherwise. The respondents further state that placing pupils with disabilities in general education classrooms is perceived as promoting quality education for all. Considering the essence of inclusive education based on the results available, the respondents also strongly felt that participation of all pupils should be a priority.

One implication of these findings is that general education should be prioritised because children participate and interact with their peers at their own pace (Wilson, 2000). Since all children are prepared for adult life challenges, this should take place in one learning environment which is general education classrooms (Kasonde-Ngandu & Moberg, 2001).

### *Attitudes to disability and pupils' rights*

Teachers are central in the implementation of inclusive education programmes. The majority of participants of this study felt that education is a fundamental right for all children and that all children including those with disabilities are entitled to be educated in the general education classrooms. In order for the rights of every child to be realised in general education classroom, all children should be perceived as the same despite their physical and intellectual limitations. Some researchers (Dickens-Smith, 1995) indicate that this may lead to acceptance of all children which is an essential to the success of inclusion.

### *Teaching experience*

The results indicate that more than half of the respondents feel that they have acquired the necessary teaching experience with the children under review. It has been noted that not all participants in this study who had experience with children with physical disabilities were more supportive to the inclusion of pupils with the same disabilities, a result which is in accordance with previous studies that have indicated that positive contacts and interactions with persons who are disabled promoted teacher support for inclusion (Leyser et al., 1994: Padeliadu & Lampropoutou, 1997).

### *How education is*

The theme 'how education is' focuses on factors that are considered vital in the promotion of inclusion for children with disabilities. The literature of this study indicates that factors such as provision of adequate time for planning together, teaching/learning resources, collaboration, staff development, and improved salaries and conditions of service are important for fostering inclusion Trump & Hange, 1996)

and may determine the development of certain attitudes in teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education (Marchesi, 1998). But the Southern Africa Development Community (SADC) Countries have a history of poverty, Schools are crowded, infrastructural conditions like water and electricity are lacking in many schools, economic resources are limited (Chaguta et al., 1998). This situation may retard the promotion of inclusion. Yet, the results indicate that most sampled schools had this facility which challenges these ideas to some extent.

From the results captured in this section of the study, countries of the SADC region whose inclusion programmes are in their infancy need to put in place pre-requisites in order for them to yield progressive, tangible results.

### *Comments*

The respondents came from the SADC countries. Results noted from their personal views in the study are that they welcome the concept of inclusive education, although they still feel that certain strategic measures should be put in place for better implementation. They emphasised that institutional infrastructure should be improved for easy access of all pupils, general education teachers should be empowered with pedagogies that cut across diverse abilities of pupils, and the need to intensify educational awareness campaigns about inclusion of all pupils. Such strategies have also been highlighted by some researchers (Galis, 1994; Millar 1996) as conducive to promotion and positive attitudes towards inclusion of children with disabilities in general education classrooms.

From the person comments results, respondents feel that the schools should formulate a comprehensive staff development programme for all the teachers, and give rise to strengthening school policy in terms of meeting educational

needs of all pupils. Further they seem to indicate that ordinary class teachers should consider themselves responsible for educating all children and all academic expectations should not segregate in an inclusive setting.

For the success of inclusive education in meeting the needs of all pupils, respondents indicate that a policy should be put in place in each school act as an education provision guide. Nevertheless I feel that besides policy formulation, there is an urgent need to enact a law on inclusive education, as at the moment there is no legislation to that effect in Zambia. Legislation helps to clarify and formulate educational policies, specific rights, and responsibilities and provides framework for provision and supply of services and resources. Research by Soodak et al., (1998) support this view by stating that legislation is important for the inclusion of children with disabilities in the general education classroom because it spells out exactly what the school should offer to the child.

## **Quantitative analysis**

The discussion below is based on quantitative data analysis already captured in chapter six above. The discussion is centred on the analysed quantitative attitudinal data which emanated from the selected seven attitude statements.

The data analysis was descriptive and also used the Kruskal Wallis and Mann-Whitney tests of difference. Further, the analysis took account of participants' roles with regard to their positions, training, education, gender, age and experience.

The statements were analysed under six demographic factors shown in the literature to be important to teacher attitudes to inclusion. The discussion that follows examines each of these factors in turn.

## *The role of position*

The relationship between attitudes and position is displayed in figures 2 to 9. In relation to the principle that 'all pupils should be educated in the general education classroom to the greatest extent possible', the head teachers, senior teachers and class teachers were more positive than negative. There was no significant difference between the groups. The participants who were in full support of the principle were administrators basing their responses on the execution of the policy while class teachers, the implementers of the policy, presented more mixed views. It must be reiterated that teachers by virtue of their responsibility are practitioners while the school heads and senior teachers are vehicles for transmitting policy to teachers, who are the interpreters.

The second attitude statement was 'all class teachers should have the primary responsibility for education of all pupils including those with disabilities in their general education classrooms'. The scores indicated that senior teachers took the most positive stance, followed by class teachers and that the least positive attitude results were from head teachers. The results did not indicate significant difference between three current position of participants. This implies that all three groups were in agreement although there were some isolated cases of negative responses. One would have expected head teachers to correspondingly take a positive lead. Perhaps reservations they made could indicate their concern over the inclusion of children with disabilities in the general education classrooms. The thinking could have been that not every teacher would be capable of handling all children especially those with disabilities.

The third in the series of statements is the principle that 'education is a fundamental right for all children including



those with disabilities'. Most participants responded positively to the item. From participants' responses, it would seem that they were conversant with the rights of children specifically with regard to education. Conversely, there were a small proportion of participants who thought that not every child should be accorded such rights. They could perhaps be pointing to disabled children. It could be speculated that such respondents might not be aware of fundamental rights of children. If the assumption is correct, then there is need for them to be sensitized within that frame of thinking. Results indicated no significant difference between the three groups in relation to their positions.

According to the results recorded, for the fourth statement 'physical disabled pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms', the trend was that head teachers reflected more positive responses followed by class teachers. Senior teachers expressed the least positivity. The rights of pupils with physical disabilities with regard to inclusive education were embraced firstly by head teachers as administrators, next followed by implementers, the class teachers, and at the lower level of acceptance were senior teachers. However, the general picture indicated no significant difference between the three groups.

Respondents were also requested to express their views on whether or not 'Intellectually impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms'. Head teachers exhibited more positive responses. They were only two in number, however. Senior teachers and class teachers tended to be divided on the issue. Within this difference of opinion, the least positive attitudes were recorded from class teachers. As alluded to earlier on, class teachers are custodians of disabled pupils in their classrooms while head teachers and senior teachers to an

extent are administrators and academic advisers respectively. The issue of rights for intellectually impaired children to be educated in the general education classroom could have been considered in a different context. Teachers who are custodians of these children might feel that if these children were mainstreamed their right to education would be trampled upon by general education pupils. Perhaps they feel that mainstreamed intellectually impaired students will be on their own in the classroom. When a division exists among teachers, it can be considered a healthy situation since they are practitioners with experience in classrooms. Once again, however, the results indicated no significant difference between the three positions.

On the attitude statement that 'visually impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms, the majority of teachers (65%) objected to the idea while 50% of head teachers remained neutral. In general terms, participants were in three camps. Head teachers and senior teachers recorded more positive responses than teachers. Again, however, the results did not show significant difference between the three groups by status position. Taken together, head teachers and senior teachers tended to agree with the above statement while teachers in the majority seemed to be on the opposing side. Senior staff generally consider it a right for visually impaired pupils to learn alongside sighted pupils. The other group, class teachers, perhaps takes certain implications into consideration such as large classes, and not being conversant with Braille writing and reading. What those in opposition might be advocating is for visually impaired pupils to be excluded so that they are able to maintain their own identity by being in the special school. In addition, the neutrality of one head teacher cannot go without comment. What this head teacher's response implies

can be speculated upon. Perhaps he is not aware of the whole issue, or he had not come into contact with the visually impaired in the general education classroom, so he preferred to remain neutral in order to avoid embarrassment.

There was no significant difference between the attitudes of these groups.

The last in the series of attitude statements is that 'hearing impaired pupils have the right to be educated in general education classrooms'. 50% of head teachers strongly objected to the statement while the other 50% responded positively. Regarding senior teachers, about 68% held very strong negative views, except 18% who were positive. At the same time, those in strong disagreement were class teachers who recorded 70% negative responses. Many responses were therefore negative and were against hearing impaired pupils having the right to learn with hearing pupils. This trend may be attributed to the communication barrier which impedes social interaction between two groups of hearing and hearing impaired. As a consequence, participants not conversant with sign language might not be willing to handle these pupils. They therefore did not deem it the right for the hearing impaired to learn alongside hearing pupils. Nevertheless, the results revealed no significant difference between the three groups.

In summary, the following are the main issues from the discussion above. The findings indicated no significant difference between three status groups in terms of attitudes towards the principle of inclusion of pupils with disabilities in the general education classrooms. On the whole, results revealed that head teachers registered more positive responses than senior teachers and class teachers. Senior teachers expressed their opinions but had varied responses. They tended to support inclusion. On the other hand class teachers seemed to be quite divided over various

statements. No status group totally rejected the idea of including pupils with disabilities. The statement that education is a fundamental right for all children including those with disabilities received the most positive support (refer to Figure 4 above).

### *The role of training*

Training is about broadening one's knowledge and skills, and, in the process may encourage positive attitudes in production or provision of services and may enhance confidence. Training backs up practice in the way people produce and provide services and behave towards others. For example, training in teaching is taken as a pre-condition for a person attaining the status of a teacher and eventually performing different roles associated with one's status. In this section the discussion centres on responses of participants towards the inclusion of pupils with various disabilities in general education classrooms. This is based on the diverse forms of training they underwent.

Statistically 78% of participants acquired primary ordinary training, about 10% were graduates with secondary ordinary education and the other 12% were ordinary and special education graduates. The responses were based on the same seven previously selected attitude statements analysed descriptively and by using Kruskal Wallis test of difference. This relates to figures 10-16 (above).

The first statement, solicited views on whether or not 'all pupils should be educated in the general education classrooms to the greatest extent possible'. The results showed that teachers with primary ordinary training were the most positive, while those with secondary ordinary and with both ordinary and special education were less so. The least positive responses were received from teachers with secondary ordinary training. It is, perhaps, surprising that those with primary ordinary training were the most positive.

One would have expected participants with both ordinary and special education training to have taken the lead (Arrington, 1992 and Galis, 1994). However, it may be that the personal practical experience of the latter group may be influential here. They could have considered various implications confronting the disabled in particular, for example, that their inclusion in general education classrooms may not benefit them in accordance with their aspirations, and their chances of education appropriate to their needs be jeopardized. Some respondents remained neutral. This may indicate a lack of awareness about the whole issue. Despite differences of opinion, the results revealed no significant difference between these three groups of professionals.

The second attitude statement advocated that 'all class teachers should have the primary responsibility for educating all pupils, including those with disabilities in their classrooms'. The results revealed that 'all participants except those with primary ordinary training registered more positive. The least positive attitudes were observed from participants with primary ordinary training. Being responsible for all pupils entails being answerable for all activities being performed by each pupil, including those with disabilities. It could be that some teacher participants with primary ordinary training felt that they were not qualified for this responsibility and were less willing to accept a full responsibility over all pupils. Those who had acquired both ordinary and special education training may have been confident that they were capable of teaching all children in their classrooms, hence their willingness to take on the primary responsibility. A few respondents expressed negative opinions, but the findings indicated no significant difference in responses between the three groups identified by training.

When asked whether or not participants considered 'education as a fundamental right for all children including those with disabilities', teachers with both ordinary and special education training expressed the most positive responses, and then came those with primary and secondary ordinary training. Every human being is born with fundamental rights including rights to education. It is in this realization that participants with both ordinary and special education training may have supported this statement. On the other hand, some participants of other groups perhaps did not realize and acknowledge that education should not be discriminatory. From an inclusion view, it should be spread and reach every human being, including those with disabilities. Therefore, such teachers may need to be sensitized on this issue. Once again, in spite of not all participants expressing positive views, the results did not indicate significant difference between the three groups which had been identified by virtue of their training.

Among children with disabilities are the physically disabled. A question was specifically directed to participants whether or not this group of children has the right to be educated alongside their physically able counterparts in general education classrooms. Figure 13 (above) summarizes the results which show that all participants almost overwhelmingly supported the statement. However, some responses fell in the 'disagree' and 'strongly disagree' categories. Among disabled persons, pupils with physical disabilities seem to rank first in terms of their recognition by the general public as having potential which can be tapped. Among them are those with for example, in Zambia, post poliomyelitis, who, despite their physical inability, are neurologically intact. One might speculate that nearly every teacher with whatever training one has acquired has been privileged to teach the physically disabled pupil either in a special or general education

classroom. It is within this context that support from the majority of participants for this attitude statement did not come as a surprise at all. Few participants expressed views negating the right for these pupils to be included in the general education classroom. The analysis revealed no significant difference between groups.

The fifth statement is 'intellectually impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms'. Again, teachers with both ordinary and special education training recorded the most positive responses. A few isolated cases were neutral (Figure 14 above). The main practice in Zambia, and taking Mwashu and Woodlands A Basic schools as specific examples, does not yet reflect complete or full inclusion. What is currently, largely being practised is what one would refer to as social inclusion. Intellectually impaired pupils have their own classrooms but within the same general school environment. Social interaction occurs during break times and/or during sports activities. However, there are exceptions to the rule. Those intellectually impaired pupils who improve academically while in a special class are usually included in the general education classrooms. It is hardly surprising, therefore, that participants with both ordinary and special education training registered the highest positive responses. The Kruskal Wallis Test indicated no significant difference between the responses from groups.

Next in the series of attitude statements is whether or not the 'visually impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms'. The results were that participants with ordinary and special education training made the highest positive responses compared with other groups. The right of the disabled with regard to inclusion in general education seems to be associated with existing resources. In a lot of Zambian schools, as much as one would

love to fully include disabled pupils in general education classroom in general and visually impaired in particular, there are some obstacles. Large classes, inadequate human and material resources to cope with the demanding situation, are but a few examples. However, where teachers have been trained to handle both groups of children coupled with teaching and learning materials and conducive infrastructure, inclusion of visually impaired pupils would not pose problems at all. Therefore, the difference recorded regarding this statement seems explicable. When the Kruskal Wallis Test of difference was conducted for this attitude statement, findings indicated significant difference between the three groups of participants' responses ( $p = 0.038$  at 0.05 level).

In the final statement, respondents were requested to express their opinions on whether the 'hearing impaired pupils have the right to be included in the general education classrooms'. Teachers with secondary ordinary training expressed the highest affirmative views, thus those with primary ordinary and those with both ordinary and special education training responded less positively. As already alluded to, one would have expected teachers with ordinary and special education components in their training to be in the forefront in their support for inclusion. Participants who expressed negative views outweighed the other group (figure 16 above). Perhaps those who have not handled the disabled and hearing impaired in particular may take the issue at hand for granted. On the converse, those who have experience of these pupils are able to draw on their experiences in feeling opposition to the statement. This again depends on each teacher's personal view. The findings revealed no significant difference between respondents in the three types of training.



## Summary

In summing up this section, views of participants towards inclusion of pupils with disabilities in general education classroom were compared, based on their three types of professional training.

Firstly the Kruskal Wallis test of difference was used with a view to determining whether there was significant difference between three types of teacher training with regard to seven attitude statements. Generally the overall result indicated no significant difference on the statements apart from one the 'visually impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms ( $p = 0.038$ ).

Secondly, a variety of views were expressed on the inclusion of pupils with disabilities in the general education classroom. Participants with ordinary and special education training topped the list in expressing their positive opinions. Those with primary ordinary training recorded more negatives. The same latter group, on the other hand, generally agreed that all pupils should be included in the main school setting. Other statements on which participants were divided included 'all teachers should have the primary responsibility for educating all pupils inclusive of pupils with disabilities' and 'education is a fundamental right for all children' taking into account the four recognized disabilities in Zambia. These are the physically disabled, intellectually, visually, and hearing impairments. The overall picture was therefore that all participants did not support the inclusion of pupils with physical, intellectual, visual and hearing impairments. The other group with secondary ordinary training supported the statement that all teachers should have primary responsibility, over all pupils, including those with disabilities and they held strong views for including the visually and intellectually

impaired pupils in the general education classroom. On the other hand, they disagreed that all pupils should, to the greatest extent possible, be educated in the mainstream classrooms and that education is a fundamental right for all children inclusive of those with disabilities. At the extreme, some participants with secondary ordinary training totally rejected the idea of inclusion of pupils with intellectual and visual impairments in mainstream school classrooms. Participants with qualifications or ordinary and special education generally agreed that all teachers should have the primary responsibility for educating all pupils in their classrooms and strongly endorsed the inclusion of pupils with intellectual and visual impairments. Conversely, they were against the view that all pupils should be educated in the general education classroom to the greatest extent possible alongside the view that education is a fundamental right for all children including those with disabilities. Perhaps the rejection of inclusion of pupils with visual impairments by respondents with primary ordinary education could be attributed to lack of awareness and, consequently general disfavour of the disabled.

Finally, participants with both ordinary and special education were more positive as judged by their responses in four statements. This is consonant with studies conducted by Arrington (1992) and Galis (1994). What also comes out clearly is that this section records no total rejection of any attitude statement, despite low positive scores in certain cases. As already discussed, this can be considered a healthy situation with regard to inclusion of disabled children in Zambia.

### *The role of education*

There is common agreement that education is the most effective weapon with which society can confront challenges of the future (Rogers, 1987; Helender, 1993). Progress

increasingly depends upon the products of educated minds in every walk of life (Kauffman, 1993).

Therefore, positive attitudes can be seen as influenced by the amount of education a teacher possesses. Studies carried out by Weltzien (1997) and Kasonde-Ng'andu and Moberg (2001) of Canada and Zambia respectively indicated that teachers with a degree level of education scored more positive attitudes towards the inclusion of pupils with disabilities than those holding certificates, diploma and advanced diplomas. In this research, there is a positive correlation between education and attitudes towards the inclusion of pupils with disabilities in the general education classroom (Galis, 1994).

This section focuses on participants' educational attainments and whether those levels have any impact on attitudes towards inclusion of pupils with disabilities. Educational levels in the current study included those with certificate in primary education, certificate in special education, diploma in secondary education, diploma in special education and finally Bachelor of Arts with education. Those with a diploma in secondary education outnumbered those in other groups (refer to figure 17 above). This section covers figures 17-24. The same seven attitudes statements selected earlier on were analysed descriptively and the Kruskal Wallis test of difference was also used. Responding to the statement that all pupils should be educated inclusively to the greatest extent possible, those with a B.A with education and those holding a certificate in special education were more sympathetic to the principle of inclusion than other groups (see figure 18). On the whole, the analysis of participants' responses did not record any significant difference between their views. The question was asked whether 'all class teachers should have the primary responsibility for education of all pupils including those

with disabilities in their classrooms'. Once again participants holding a certificate in special education scored more positive responses than any other groups. In one group responsibility takes into account being accountable or answerable to certain authority. This phenomenon in turn calls for the practitioner to exercise maximum expert knowledge skills and vigilance in the execution of one's responsibility. Perhaps it could be the main reason why some respondents did not want to identify themselves with such responsibility, thus their stand culminated in expressing negative opinions. On the other hand, the Kruskal Wallis test of difference was conducted and the findings indicated no significant difference between participants' responses in relation to their levels of education.

Respondents were asked whether they considered education as a fundamental right for every child, including pupils with disabilities. Participants with a certificate in primary education expressing themselves the most positively. One other notable feature was that, despite some differences in opinions, nearly every participant agreed that education should not be withheld from children, whether able-bodied or disabled. Further results recorded were rather interesting because one would have expected that special education holders should have continued to take the lead in positive attitudes. Finally, could it be that the positive top scorers had more access to human rights than other participants? After measuring all responses recorded using the Kruskal Wallis test of difference, the finding indicated no significant difference between participants' responses.

The next attitude statement in the series is 'physically disabled pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms'. The trend from the participants' point of view was that certificate and diploma holders in special education recorded more affirmative responses. Less

positive were holders of ordinary primary, secondary and B.A. with education. Perhaps the saying that one can only appreciate when one knows may suffice here. The most positive were those with special education training. The essence of special education is to cater for the plight of the disabled and physically disabled in this particular context. It is little wonder that their responses were positive. They had the insight into the nature of the disability and the needs of the disabled pupils respectively. Once again, when responses were measured using the Kruskal Wallis test of difference, the results indicated no significant difference between participants' responses.

Respondents were asked whether 'intellectually impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms. Participants with certificates and diplomas in special education associated themselves very much with the statement while the rest were less positive. This scenario could be explained in terms of education undertaken by participants in this study. Those who were the most positive had both ordinary and special teacher education qualifications which may put them at a more advantageous position in understanding the practical situation. Until recently (1990) ordinary teacher training curricula in Zambia never included special education components. This means that, before then, graduates had no understanding about the rights of the disabled and the intellectually disabled in particular. Analysis findings indicated no significant difference between groups.

The sixth statement solicited views from respondents whether the 'visually impaired pupils have the right to be educated in general education classrooms. Participants with a B.A with education expressed more positive opinions over other groups. However, there was a variety of opinions attached to this item (figure 23 above). It would appear that

participants were divided although the scale seemed to slightly tilt to towards disagreement. The number of participants with an education was very small. There was no significant difference between respondents' attitudes.

The final attitude statement is 'hearing impaired have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms'. The results showed participants with a B.A with education the most positive, while other groups had divided views. The majority of opinions were negative (figure 24 above).

Participants in this study expressed mixed feelings about including hearing impaired in general education. Negative opinions could be pointing to a communication barrier which may exist between the hearing and hearing impaired children despite a national institution run by people with hearing impairment to train all professionals who deal with the public in sign language. For example, interpreters, Security personnel, Nurses, teachers, pre-school children and many others those who come in contact with hearing impaired people are being trained in this way in Zambia. They have also published a Local Sign Language booklet. Such social barriers, may mean many participants avoid including the pupils in the general education classroom. Findings indicated a significant difference between participants' levels of education.

### *Summary*

In conclusion, the Kruskal Wallis test of difference was used to measure whether or not there was significant difference between five levels of responses of teachers with education. The main findings indicated no difference except for the issue referring to the right of children with hearing impairment being educated in the general education classrooms. A variety of sentiments was expressed by respondents (figures 21 to 24).

Participants with certificates and diplomas in special education were more supportive to the statements than those with other qualifications. By contrast, to state that teachers with a degree level of education are expected to score more positive responses towards inclusion in the general education classrooms does not seem to be supported in this study (Wetzien, Ibid, Kasonde-Ng'andu and Moberg, Ibid). This is evident in this study as there are only two out of seven attitude statements supported by the latter named group. Findings from studies by Millar (1996) and Tembo (2001) show that people with qualifications are positive towards inclusion, but this study shows the opposite, albeit numbers of participants are small.

### *The role of gender*

It is generally agreed that gender has a bearing on attitudes towards the inclusion of pupils with disabilities in general education classrooms. This finding is supported by Arrington (1992) and Galis (1994) of Canada; Millar (1996) of U.S.A and Kasonde-Ng'andu and Moberg (2001) of Zambia. Their work indicates that female participants relatively have more positive attitudes towards pupils with disabilities and inclusion. In the Zambian situation this attitude may be found because there is usually a strong bonding between the child and mother especially during child rearing.

The participants in this study are 82% females and 18% males (figure 25 above). The main reasons for the imbalance of more females than males were alluded to earlier on. Male teachers leave for improved job prospects within or outside the country, and concentration of female teachers along the line of the railway has something to do with marital affinity. Female teachers are usually married to husbands who are not necessarily teachers themselves but are also

employed in this area. Results from the Mann Whitney test of difference are reflected in figures 26 to 32.

The two designated groups of participants were asked for their opinions concerning the 'right to all pupils to be educated in the general education classrooms to the greatest extent possible'. Firstly, opinions expressed varied, merging from agree, neutral to disagree, but male participants were almost in full agreement with the statement (figure 26 above). What it meant was that female participants had more worries over all pupils being included in general education classrooms. It would appear that they had disabled pupils in mind, who they thought could not be easily absorbed in the mainstream classroom. The results indicated no significance difference between gender groups, however.

Respondents were further asked whether or not 'all class teachers should have primarily responsibility for the education of all pupils including those with disabilities in their classrooms'. The trend was that more female than male participants were in favour of the statement. This result implied that females thought it important for all teachers to be responsible for all pupils, inclusive of those with disabilities. However, the findings indicated no significant difference.

Participants were asked whether 'education is a fundamental right for all children including those with disabilities. Once again female participants registered more positive responses. One notable feature was that all respondents registered their support for the statement except about 10% of females who disagreed (figure 28 above). From the results above, what comes out strongly is that both groups of respondents recorded support for inclusion, perhaps reflecting a view of the fundamental right attached to education. Interestingly, female participants were more in



agreement than their male counterparts. Perhaps as already alluded to, the bonding that exists between mothers and their children may have contributed to the high score achieved by the female participants. However, Using the Mann-Whitney test of difference instrument, the findings indicated no significant difference between other groups.

The attitude statement that follows is, 'physically disabled pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms'. Although there were some isolated cases of negative responses, very high positive scores were received from both male and female participants. One could argue that both male and female respondents appreciated the place of physically disabled pupils in the general education classrooms. When participants' view were measured using the Mann-Whitney test of difference, the findings revealed no significant difference between male and female participants.

The next statement in the series is 'Intellectually impaired pupils' have right to be educated in the general education classrooms'. The analysis showed that male participants scored more positive responses than female (figure 30 above). The reverse trend may be attributed to the concern females attach to the care of children. In this instance female respondents may feel that intellectually impaired pupils have to learn adequately, at their own pace and, perhaps that including them may have the reverse effect. At the extreme, some female participants might have suffered from lack of sensitization regarding the right of pupils for inclusion. When responses were tested, using the Mann-Whitney test of difference, no significant difference between the two groups was noted.

Respondents were asked whether 'visually impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms' A variety of views were expressed, and male participants were more positive in their responses. However,

more than half of the responses were negative (figure 31). Two issues may come into play to explain why females seemed to be more negative. Firstly, females might lack awareness about the potential inherent in visually impaired pupils. Secondly, females might lack skills necessary to operate gadgets for Braille writing and reading. The Mann-Whitney test of difference revealed no significant difference between the two groups.

The last attitude statement in this section is 'hearing impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms'. Analysis of the results revealed that male participants scored more positive responses than their female counterparts. Female participants were more negative towards this statement (figure 32 above). Two reasons may explain the negative response received from female teachers. Firstly, communication has been a stumbling block between hearing teachers and hearing impaired pupils. Secondly, the teachers might have not been conversant with the use of technological devices such as hearing aids. It goes without saying that if the above problems are not addressed teachers' attitudes to pupils with hearing impairment may be negative and thus discrimination against the hearing impaired may ensue. When the Mann-Whitney test of difference was conducted, the results indicated a significant difference between the two groups.

In this section the instrument, Mann-Whitney U-test of difference was applied to measure whether there was significant difference between male and female participants in all the seven attitudes statements. Only one statement referring to as 'hearing impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms' revealed a significant difference between the two groups.

## *Summary*

The overall picture is that male participants were more positive than female participants. Many factors could be attributed to the female participants' low positive responses. Speculation as to the reasons for this could include the following:

- the concern that mothers have for their children, such as being abused by their peers
- the able-bodied could not openly let their disabled children be included in the general education classrooms.
- concern for disabled pupils' security.
- a large number of female participants may not have been exposed to the realities of life. This means that male participants are more open to new ideas than their female counterparts. This could be true especially in the African culture where women are usually in the home looking after children while men are out socializing with others.

Finally, previous studies conducted by Arrington (1992), Galis (1994) and Millar (1996) are not compatible with the current study from Zambia. The latter's findings are that male rather than female respondents are more positive to the inclusion of disabled pupils in general education classrooms. Such results are quite contrary to results of studies outside Zambia or in the developed world.

## *The role of age*

Age has a bearing on attitudes of teachers towards the inclusion of pupils with disabilities in mainstream education classrooms (Ferley 1991; Roach, 1998; Kasonde-Ng'andu and Moberg, 2001). Among the respondents, about 56% were under 25 years; 8% were between 25-30 years; 18% were

between 31-40 years; 12% were between 41-50 years and 6% were between 51-60 years (figure 33).

Most participants were under 25 years. One of the explanations for the age range is that most older teachers retire early due to the Early Retirement Policy, established in 1990 and or that others have died due to the impact of the HIV/AIDS pandemic (Ministry of Health, 1997: CSO, 2000). The discussion in this section is based on the same seven attitude statements already alluded to. The Kruskal Wallis test of difference was applied and the results are graphed in figures 34-40.

The participants were asked whether 'all pupils should be educated in the general education classrooms to the greatest extent possible' (figure 34 above). The overall picture is that participants in all age bands favoured the statement. However, there are some isolated responses falling in 'disagree' and 'strongly disagree' categories. Unfortunately reasons were not advanced and the study did not provide provision for an explanation. When responses were measured using Kruskal Wallis test of difference, the findings indicated no significant difference between groups of participants.

The second attitude statement is 'all class teachers should have the primarily responsibility for educating of all pupils including those with disabilities in their classrooms'. The results indicated that respondents with age ranges between 25-30 years and 51-60 years registered more positive responses than those under 25 years, 31-40 years and 41-50 years (figure 35 above). One might consider that participants under 25 years of age are very new in the service, and thus they are likely to be overwhelmed by the responsibility of having children entrusted to them. Using the Kruskal Wallis test of difference, the findings

indicated no significant difference between the groups of participants.

The third statement is 'education is a fundamental right for all children including those with disabilities'.

Participants in all other age bands indicated more positive responses than those within 41-50 years category. It must be acknowledged that while almost all respondents agreed with this attitude statement, a few in the under 25 years band expressed dissent (figure 36 above). An explanation of the few isolated negative responses could be that they were beginners in the profession, implying that they might not be aware of the rights of children including those with disabilities. When participants' responses were tested, the Kruskal Wallis test indicated no significant difference between the response.

Next for consideration is whether 'physically disabled pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms'. Participants in the age range 51-60 years scored more positive responses than those under 25 years; 25-30 years; 31-40 years and 41-50 years age ranges (figure 37). One assumption for the positive responses of participants within the age range 51-60 years could be that the more one advances in age, the more one becomes concerned not only for his/her own offsprings' welfare but for others as well. Once again the Kruskal Wallis test of difference results indicated no significant difference between groups of participants.

The next attitude statement in the series is 'intellectually impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classroom'. Participants in the age range 51-60 responded most positively compared with other age ranges. As can be observed from figures 37 and 38, the amount of disagreement with inclusion was associated with children with intellectual impairments more than those with physical

disabilities. A possible explanation would not differ from the one provided above. Using the Kruskal Wallis test of difference the result indicated no significant difference between groups.

The sixth attitude statement is 'visually impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms'. The views expressed by respondents were that those between 51-60 years of age once again were more positive than those in other age bands (figure 39). The Kruskal Wallis test of difference revealed no significant difference between groups.

The last attitude statement in the series is 'hearing impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms'. Participants in the age range 51-60 recorded more positive responses. All responses for participants in the age band 25-30 years were negative (figure 40 above). Perhaps teachers were not sensitized about the potential of hearing impaired pupils. Secondly, the communication barrier as already alluded to could have exerted pressure and left a vacuum between teachers and the named pupils. It could also be that noisy classes were a bother to them and they wondered how hearing impaired pupils could benefit from such a learning environment. When the Kruskal Wallis test was conducted, the results indicated no significant difference between groups in all age ranges.

In this section, seven appropriate attitude statements were selected from the questionnaire with a view to assessing the attitude of teachers, based on their age ranges, towards the inclusion of pupils with disabilities in general education classrooms.

The results of the Kruskal Wallis test of difference indicated no significant difference.

## *Summary*

Finally, respondents in the age group 51-60 years recorded more positive scores in most statements. This result concurs with previous studies which indicate that older participants usually score more positive responses towards the inclusion of pupils with disabilities in general education classrooms than young participants (Arrington, 1992: Galis, 1994: Millar, 1996).

## *The role of experience*

Experience implies accumulation of knowledge and/or skills that result from direct interaction with persons, objects, environment or participation in events. Experience can be acquired for example through discussion, meetings, seminars, workshops, coursework, or physical interaction with a person. Roach (1998) carried out a study in Canada to determine the relationship between attitudes and experience. What came out in this study was that teachers who had experience with pupils with disabilities were more positive than those without experience. The study further recorded that different categories of disabilities also affect the willingness of teachers to accept pupils in the mainstream education classrooms.

35% of participants had experience with pupils with disabilities while 65% of participants had no experience with pupils with disabilities (figure 41 above). As in previous sections, the same seven attitudes were analysed descriptively according to teachers' experience of pupils with physical, intellectual, visual and hearing impairments. The Mann-Whitney test of difference was also applied as in figures 42 to 48 (above). In this analysis 1 represents participants with experience and 2 denotes participants without experience.

## **Experience with visual impairment**

The first statement to be considered is that 'all pupils should be educated in the general education classrooms to the greatest extent possible'. A diversity of responses was recorded. Participants with experience recorded more negative opinions than those without experience (figure 42 above). Indeed, it could be speculated that those who were more positive had the background about the nature and potential of children without visual impairment, unlike the other group. However, when responses were analysed using the Mann-Whitney test of difference, the results indicated no significant difference between the two groups of participants.

The second attitudinal statement was 'all class teachers should have the primarily responsibility for education of all pupils including those with disabilities in their classrooms'. Based on the results recorded, participants without experience with positive views outweighed those with experience (see figure 43 above). Reflecting on the results, it is surprising to observe that participants without experience are in favour of the item. It could be that those with experience perceived the implications involved in handling every school child and understood what it would mean for all teachers to be skillful and capable to cope with the situation. Those without experience might have thought to the contrary. They might have not realised the implications, especially in the Zambian environment which does not seem to be conducive to inclusion in that it has no adequate educational facilities for such pupils. Using the Mann-Whitney test of difference, the results indicated no significant difference between the two groups of participants.

The third statement is 'education is a fundamental right for all children including those with disabilities'. In this



instance, the view was overwhelmingly accepted by both groups. Only 1.6% of participants with experience were negative (figure 44 above). It can be observed that nearly every respondent acknowledged the significance of educating every child, both able-bodied and disabled. When the results were analysed, using the Mann-Whitney test of difference, there was no significant difference between the two groups.

The fourth attitude statement is 'physically disabled pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms'. Both groups supported this attitude although some responses were negative (figure 45 above). When the Mann-Whitney test of difference was used, the results showed no significant difference between the two groups of participants.

The fifth attitude statement is 'intellectually impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms'. This statement attracted a variety of opinions. Participants with experience were divided in the issue. One half was in agreement while the other was not. Participants without experience mark more positive responses than the other group (figure 46 above). The division among those with experience could be that they had experience of the children, thus their point of view was rooted in experience. The Mann-Whitney test of difference results, indicated no significant difference between the two groups of participants.

The sixth attitude statement is 'visually impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms'. Respondents were quite divided on this issue. The majority of participants without experience recorded negative views while those without scored more positive responses (figure 47 above). Some respondents seem to view teaching the visually impaired with some reservations. Those with negative views sensed some pitfalls in inclusion, for

example the lack of adequate human and special material resources suitable for such children if they are to benefit from education. This is coupled with noisy or disruptive classes which may adversely affect the learning of a child with visual impairment. It may be that those who were in agreement would do everything possible to handle the situation (Kalabula, 1992; Kasonde-Ng'andu, 2001; Tembo, 2001). When responses were measured against the Mann-Whitney test of difference, the results revealed no significant difference between the two groups.

The last in the series of attitude statements is 'hearing' impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms'. A variety of responses were recorded with the majority of responses being negative. Participants with experience were more positive than those without experience (figure 48 above). One could say that despite the learning potential inherent in children who are hearing impaired, the greatest obstacle for inclusion is the communication barrier. The hearing impaired do not benefit much from verbal language which is widely used. In contrast, the general public including most teachers in general education classrooms, are not familiar with sign language. Applying the Mann-Whitney test of difference indicated no significant difference between groups.

### *Summary*

The Mann-Whitney test of difference was applied to assess whether or not there was a significant difference between participants with and without experience in terms of attitudes. The findings recorded no significant difference in all attitude statements.

According to the findings in this section, participants with experience were more positive than participants without experience not withstanding some divisions which were shown

in some attitude statements. The attitude statement that, 'education is a fundamental right for all children including those with disabilities', received overwhelming positive support.

Finally, these findings were consistent with previous studies conducted by Ferley (1991); Millar (1996); Kasonde-Ng'andu (2001) which indicated that participants with experience usually score high responses on issues of attitudes and inclusion for pupils with visual impairments.

### **Experience with physical impairments**

This section discusses the analysis of seven attitude statements by experience of pupils with physical impairments (figures 49-54). Data was analysed by using the Mann-Whitney test of difference.

In relation to the first statement 'all pupils should be educated in the general education classrooms to the greatest extent possible, various opinions were recorded.

Participants without experience responded more positively than those with experience (see figure 49 above). An explanation of the responses expressed might be as follows. Those in agreement did not think that inclusion for children with physical impairment would be disadvantageous to any group of children. Those who disagreed with the statement might be averse to the possible implications if all children learned together in one general environment. The Mann-Whitney test of difference revealed no significant difference between the two groups of participants was noted.

The second attitude statement is 'all class teachers should have the primary responsibility for education of all children including those with disabilities in their classrooms'. Once again participants without experience were more positive than other groups (see figure 50 above).

Results using the Mann-Whitney test of difference, indicated no significant difference between the two groups.

Participants were asked whether 'education is a fundamental right for all children including those with disabilities'. The record showed that both groups of participants were in favour of this attitudinal statement (figure 51 above). It should also be noted that besides the high positive responses recorded, there were a few isolated individuals who did not agree with the statement. On the whole the statement was supported by participants. The Mann-Whitney test of difference, indicated no significant difference between the two groups.

Then followed the statement 'physically disabled children have right to be educated in the general education classrooms'. Respondents without experience were more positive with their responses than the experienced ones (figure 52 above). Although there were some negative responses, the majority of participants supported the statement. When these responses were analysed using the Mann-Whitney test of difference, the results showed no significant difference.

Participants were asked whether 'intellectually impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms'. Results indicated that experienced participants were more positive than participants without experience (figure 53 above). A variety of opinions were expressed. Attitudes to pupils' right for inclusion in the general education classrooms were mixed. Despite difference of opinions, the Mann-Whitney test of difference results indicated no significant difference between the groups.

The next attitude statement in the series is 'visually impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classroom'. A variety of responses were recorded, with the majority being negative. However, participants

without experience proportionately outweighed participants with experience. These teachers might have felt that the classroom environment might not be conducive for the visually impaired, for example, crowded classrooms, unsuitable classroom furniture and lack of gargets such as Braille writing frames, and the like. The Mann-Whitney test of difference, indicated no significant difference between the groups of participants.

The seventh attitude statement in this section is 'hearing impaired pupils have the right to be educated in general education classrooms'. Participants expressed a variety of opinions, with the majority of responses being negative. However, participants without experience responded more positively than those with experience (figure 55 above). Participants with experience seem to understand the implications involved in including pupils with hearing impairments in the general education classrooms, especially that their language, 'Sign Language' is not familiar to most general education teachers. When the Mann-Whitney test of difference was applied, the results indicated no significant difference between the groups.

### *Summary*

In this section, the Mann-Whitney test of difference was conducted with a view to finding out whether there was significant difference between participants with and without experience in attitudes towards inclusive education in Zambia. The results indicated no significant difference between the two groups in all the seven attitude statements. Regarding the findings of this section, participants with experience were more positive than those without experience. There was some difference of opinion with the majority of responses falling in the 'disagree' and 'strongly disagree' categories.

It must also be noted that there was some consensus between the results of this study and previous studies conducted elsewhere (Salah, 1996; Moberg, 1997) which indicate that participants with experience record more positive responses towards the inclusion of pupils with physical impairments in general education classrooms than those without experience.

### **Experience with intellectual impairment**

What follows is discussion of the seven attitude statements in relation to experience with intellectual impairment (figures 56-62). Analysis was done using the Mann-Whitney test of difference.

The first statement to be considered in this section is 'all pupils should be educated in the general classrooms to the greatest extent possible'. Results indicated a variety of responses, with both groups of participants recording highly positive responses, although some isolated responses were negative (figure 56 above). Those few participants who expressed rejection of the statement could have held the belief, held in certain circles in Zambia that, some intellectually impaired pupils suffering from epilepsy should not learn alongside able-bodied counterparts for fear of the latter being contaminated. The belief is that when the child falls into fits and pollutes the air, those around him/her may also be adversely affected, thus contracting the same condition. If such a belief was supported by some teacher participants, it is hardly surprising that there were some negative responses. However, overall, positive responses outweighed the negatives. The Mann-Whitney test of difference indicated no significant difference between participants with and without experience.

Participants were asked whether 'all class teachers should have primary responsibility for the education of all pupils in their classrooms'. Participants with experience proportionately supported this statement more highly than

those without experience (figure 57 above). However, the Mann-Whitney test of difference showed no significant difference between the two groups.

The third attitude statement is 'education is a fundamental right for all children including those with disabilities.' Both groups of participants recorded highly positive responses except that a very few of those without experience were negative (figure 58 above). Perhaps those few participants without experience need to be exposed to a fundamental human rights or awareness campaign. The Mann-Whitney analysis of responses showed no significant difference between the group participants.

Asked whether 'physically disabled pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms', respondents with experience recorded more positive responses than those without experience (figure 59 above). A possible explanation is that those teachers who had experience with the physically disabled pupils were convinced that such pupils are capable of being included in the mainstream. The Mann-Whitney test of difference indicated no significant difference between the groups.

Asked whether 'intellectually impaired pupils have the right to be educated in general education classrooms, 'participants without experience were proportionately more positive than the experienced participants' (figure 60 above). Participants without experience overwhelmingly felt that every child has the right to education. On the other hand those participants with experience of teaching the intellectually disabled while thus their level of positivity could not tally with that of the other agreeing to the statement seemed to make observations concerning the implications group, hence the need for the significant difference between the two groups.

Participants were asked whether, 'Visually impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms' A variety of opinions were expressed with the majority of responses falling in the disagree and strongly disagree categories, although participants without experience recorded more positive responses than those with experience (figure 61 above). After analysing the results using the Mann-Whitney test of difference no significant difference was found.

The seventh attitude statement focused 'hearing impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms'. Diverse views were recorded ranging from agree, neutral to disagree. The majority of the responses fell in the negative category (figure 62 above). The Mann-Whitney test of difference, showed no significant difference between the groups of participants.

### *Summary*

In analysing the various responses from two groups of participants the Mann-Whitney test of difference was conducted to find out whether there was a significant difference between participants with and without experience. On the whole, findings recorded no significant difference except with the item that intellectually impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms. Those without experience were significantly more positive in their attitude to inclusion.

The attitude statement that education is a fundamental right for all children including those with disabilities, almost received total agreement. However, the findings of this section clearly demonstrate that participants with experience were proportionately more positive to various attitude statements than those without experience.



The findings in this study section support previous studies conducted by Gallis (1994) and Millar (1996) which report that teachers with experience record more positive responses on the inclusion of pupils with intellectual disabilities in the general education classrooms.

### **Experience with hearing impairments**

This is the final section and discusses the analysed results of seven attitude statements according to experience of hearing impairments (figures 63 to 69). The Mann-Whitney test of difference measure differences between the responses of participants with and without experience.

Participants were asked whether 'all pupils should be educated in the general education classrooms to the greatest extent possible'. A variety of opinions was noted.

Participants with experience were the most positive (figure 63 above). Participants who supported the statement outweighed those who were negative. The Mann-Whitney test of difference was conducted and results indicated no significant difference between the groups.

Asked whether 'all teachers should have primary responsibility for educating all pupils including those with disabilities in their classrooms', participants without experience were more positive than those with experience (figure 64 above). This could be because of not knowing what is involved in education for the hearing impaired. Once again the Mann-Whitney test of difference recorded no significant difference between the two groups.

The third attitude statement is 'education is a fundamental right for all children including those with disabilities'. The statement was almost unanimously supported by all respondents, although those with experience were more positive than those without experience (figure 60 above). A few responses were negative possibly due to inadequate

exposure to the principles and practices related to human rights, especially as they deal with education. The Mann-Whitney test of difference results indicated no significant difference between the groups.

Participants were asked whether the 'physically disabled pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms'. Participants without experience were the most positive in acknowledging pupils' rights to be educated in general education classrooms. Those with experience with low positive responses might have taken into account the nature and level of each physical disability and the implications for classroom practice, while those without experience did not seem to consider all such implications. The Mann-Whitney test of difference indicated no significant difference between the groups.

Asked whether 'intellectually impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms' a variety of opinions were recorded. Participants without experience recorded more positive responses than those with experience (figure 67 above). The intellectually disabled represent a wide continuum, and such a consideration could have contributed to a variety of opinions expressed. It might be that those participants without experience did not take various implications into account. The adage that 'experience is the best teacher' may suffice in this regard. The Mann-Whitney test of difference results indicated no significant difference between the groups.

The sixth attitude statement is 'visually impaired pupils have the right to be educated in general education classrooms'. The majority of responses were negative. Participants without experience expressed more positive opinions than those with experience (figure 68 above). Overall, experienced participants did not generally agree with the statement, possibly because they considered all the

practicalities that go with teaching the visually impaired. This kind of insight is lacking in the participants without experience. The Mann-Whitney test of difference results indicated no significant difference between groups.

Finally, the seventh attitude statement solicited views from respondents on whether the 'hearing impaired have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms'. A variety of responses were noted (figure 69). The majority of responses were negative although participants with experience recorded more positive opinions than those without. The Mann-Whitney test of difference indicated no significant difference between the responses of the groups.

### *Conclusion*

Discussions of the findings of this section have raised various issues which need to be discussed.

The willingness of participants to accept all children, including those with disabilities, to be included in the general education classrooms has been noted, with a general consensus among respondents that all children, regardless of their well being, should learn together in one environment. This is a move towards inclusion. However, there were two items which indicated that participants significantly differed. These were that hearing and intellectually impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms. The majority of respondents registered their concern over the inclusion of these pupils.

One other finding is that participants in this study were at variance which one would expect. One school of thought for the refusal to include children with disabilities is, perhaps, a concern over their security, taking the Zambian milieu into account. Another school of thought holds it that, since education is a human right, so principally

inclusion of children with disabilities in the general education classrooms should be taken as a Gospel message.

A further issue can be seen to arise from a comparison of studies conducted in Zambia and elsewhere. What has come out is two sided. On one hand studies inside and outside Zambia agree in their findings that favour inclusion of the disabled in the general education classrooms (Tembo, 2001; Kasonde-Ng'andu, 2001) while on the other hand the current study works to the contrary to some extent. The difference of the two studies can be explained in the subsequent manner. Zambia and such Countries as UK, U.S.A, Canada stand in two different environmental settings. Zambia unlike the mentioned countries is a developing nation. Distinctive features include size of classes, adequacy of teaching/learning materials, quantity and quality of teaching personnel, tone of school infrastructure. Therefore, the difference in the two findings is justifiable.

In view of the foregoing points, another area of concern are the following features which are taken as problems to inclusion in the Zambian scenario, thus, on one hand, teachers are advocating for human resource development programme. While this need may be there, but what is required in the foreseeable future is to retrain the existing staff so that they become conversant with the expectations of an inclusion programme. The distance between home and school stands as a stumbling block to successful inclusion of the disabled especially where the programme does not include boarding facilities. Some schools are trying to include children who cannot be brought to school due to the severity of their disabilities by teaching them in their own home territory. But such an initiative needs to be organized with the full backing of the Ministry of Education.

Then comes the crucial issue of HIV/AIDS which has claimed a lot of teachers' lives, leaving classes with poor staffing. According to Kasonde-Ng'andu (2001), some teachers suffering from this are known to be infecting their pupils, commonly identified in male teachers. Therefore, there is need for continued sensitization programmes in this respect.

It can therefore be stated that inclusive education of children with disabilities in the general education classrooms is a welcome concept, but for it to yield anticipated, tangible results, in a country like Zambia, there is a lot to be put in place.

### **Findings in the national context**

In order to set the analysis of these data into context, it is important to take account of traditional attitudes of the Zambian population to children with disabilities. I have noted in chapter 3 what these traditional attitudes are: pity and sympathy, sin and punishment, helplessness, fear and rejection, religious clarity. In Zambia there are a number of discourses that are associated with the activities that result from these attitudes. Pity and sympathy might be associated with inclusion. Sin and punishment is associated with destroy and hide. Helplessness is associated with evil and, therefore, should be destroyed or hidden. Fear and rejection leads to removal in case others should be contaminated. Religious clarity means that disabled children were treated as charitable objects to be removed and looked after outside the mainstream. These discourses might be summarised as 'Destroy and Hide', 'Removal and Contamination' and 'inclusion' (Tembo, 1992). These discourses may be seen to represent a continuum distant to close, or destruction to acceptance and nurture.

## *Destroy and hide*

'Destroy and hide' can be considered as one historical set of practices. Some characteristics include the following. Children are seen as a gift from God. During this period, whole families who were blessed with children with a disability were killed. It means that families instantly had their lives terminated including the child. It was done in public for everybody to see. Their villages were thought to be contaminated and destroyed and new ones were built in a new place, distant from the old ones. However, those families who happened to be favoured by the chief, headman or king could be asked to flee the villages and hide so that other people would be unaware, and their place of identity would remain un-noticed. This trend of events continues with some families today. It is a cause of concern that the majority of Zambian people especially the illiterates or those with little education still cling to the belief that punishment is a cardinal cause of disability. (Simwaka, 1985). Therefore it is common to hear about what families do or did to deserve such a child. A disability, it must be reiterated, is considered a punishment for a bad sin committed by either a parent or both parents during the time of pregnancy. This meant that parents were held responsible for what happened to their child. One of the participants in Kalabula's (1992) study indicated that the individual must have done something to deserve the loss of limbs. This can be traced back to ancient Hebrew culture represented in the Old Testament. For instance Blindness was associated with God's Power, a view found in Genesis 19:9-11. One can argue that, as a result of the work of missionaries, the Biblical account of the Old Testament influenced the dissemination of the belief that sin and punishment are some of the causes of disability. For example, I have heard preachers in Christian churches often talking like this.

## *Removal and contamination*

In the practice of 'removal and contamination', any parent or family who gave birth to a child with a disability was removed from the main village to go and live outside the village (Tembo, 1992). The thinking of the people involved was that if the disabled persons continued being together with the able-bodied they would contaminate and pollute the air in the village so much that future families would produce children with similar disabilities. This practice could perhaps be associated with the treatment of lepers who have their own leper colonies. Their able bodied relatives visit them but do not come in close proximity, but only leave them food at a certain designated point. In all such circumstances, the woman is at the centre of the controversy. This practice still exists. Some marriages are at risk of breaking because of such beliefs. A child is born disabled and the blame is attributed to the woman as being responsible for the calamity. The man divorces the woman, leaving her with the disabled child.

## *Inclusion*

The third set of practices is inclusion. Through the spread of education and science and the influence of international policies such as the Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989), the Jomtien World Declaration of Education for All (1990), set itself a monumental challenge: To provide basic education for all the people of the world and reduce illiteracy (Art. 2: 9: 23: 29: 30); the Standard Rules on the Equalization of Opportunities for Persons with Disabilities (1993), which stated that educational authorities are responsible for the education of persons with disabilities in an inclusive setting in the general education classroom; Salamanca Statement and Framework of Action adopted at the World Conference on Special Needs

Education (1994) built on the Jomtien Declaration and mapped out practical requirements, and reflected principles for promoting Education for All 'access and quality' (Salamanca Framework for Action, Art. 3) and Dakar (2000), laid out a set of goals and strategies for achieving Education for All (EFA). Through these policies, Zambian society has been influenced in its perception of children with disabilities. Some of those who have been to school have come to understand that all people are equal whether able-bodied or disabled; that they have the right to education, medical services, freedom of movement, choice and the like. Influenced by human rights issues the government has formulated educational policies in favour of the disabled but unfortunately, these policies are not supported by instruments (Laws/Acts of Parliament) at all. The government has little or no resources to support except with the aid of donor countries. As a result of this, various parental organizations in Zambia have been formed with the view of enhancing government efforts, in a bid to support education for children with disabilities. Examples of these organizations include Zambia Association of Children and Adult with Learning Disabilities (ZACALD) Zambia National Association for the physically Disabled (ZNAPD), Zambia Association for the Blind (ZAB) Cerebral Palsy Association of Zambia (CPAZ) and above all Zambia Agency for Persons with Disabilities (ZAPD).

The concept of inclusion did not develop in isolation but has its roots in what can be termed 'hide and educate'. Special education was founded on the principle that if disabled children are secluded from the general education classroom, they would then psychologically stabilize and thus concentrate on learning. There was also a fear that if disabled pupils were educated alongside their able-bodied counterparts, the reverse would be experienced. This practice can be linked with the Missionary era in Zambia.



Various Missionary agencies built schools exclusively for disabled pupils away from mainstream schools. These schools had boarding facilities as well. In the Zambian context such experience was with the visually, hearing and physically disabled. This was a segregated model of education.

There was a general shift from the missionary era into social inclusion. The practice now is that general education school is identified by administrators with responsibility for placement of children with disabilities (District Officials in collaboration with the office of the Provincial Education Officer). After all resources have been put in place, disabled pupils become part of the school. However, they are isolated in terms of academic work. A learning classroom is secured for them within the same school environment. The optimum goal is to enable the two groups to be socially included, therefore their socializing takes place during breaktimes and largely during extra-mural activities.

A related aspect is functional inclusion. The two groups of children learn side by side in the general education classroom. Arising from such practice are elements of socialization and academic co-operation. Children come to appreciate the existence of one another, and offer reciprocal help whenever need be. Eventually there is universal acceptance. One other striking feature is that children with disabilities come to be appreciated as full members of society, who are not only consumers of resources but are able to contribute too.

### *Reflection on the three discourses*

The three discourses above are commonly used in Zambia in relation to children with disabilities. With the spread of education, public opinion has changed to some extent from a view that disabled children should be destroyed to the

current position where many people feel all children should be included in society. In this study teachers of all status groups in schools, whether experienced or inexperienced, generally supported the principle of inclusion. It seems that many teachers have grasped the principle of inclusion and of human rights. Zambian education policy has clearly been influenced by international policy documents such as the Jomtien agreement (1990), and the Salamanca statement of (1994). Those teachers with qualification in the area of special education in all likelihood will be familiar with these policies. Teachers with general education qualifications in Zambia will also have been exposed to discussion of human rights issues. The attitudes of head teacher are a very important consideration in relation to including children with disabilities in schools. They were only two heads in this study, so it is difficult to generalize. However, it is note worth that these five heads were often individual in their views. In school where the head teacher is not in favour of inclusion, it will be very difficult for any children with disabilities to feel comfortable in class room and they may never be enrolled in schools in the first place.

The findings in this research show very clearly all teachers support the principles of education for all pupils in general terms, even though some teachers feel more strongly about this than others. Having said this, all teachers tend to be less positive about inclusion when it comes to thinking about the actual practice of including pupils with particular kind of difficulties or disabilities. In the current research study, teachers are the least positive about including children with hearing difficulties. The vast majority of teachers' expressed negative attitudes towards this group of pupils. The most negative about inclusion were those teachers with experience. Teachers were also negative

about including children with visual impairment. As before teachers with experience were more negative.

In terms of attitudes towards intellectually impaired pupils having the right to be educated in general education classrooms, those teachers without experience felt more positive towards inclusion of such pupils than teachers with experience. The category of pupils with intellectual impairment was the third highest in terms of negative attitudes over all.

It is interesting that teachers became increasingly more negative towards including children with disabilities. The more experience they have of putting the principles of inclusion into practice in relation to a particular disability groups. In this way they might be seen as relating to the old 'removal' discourse. Teachers with experience in some cases felt very strongly that some children had no place in general education classrooms.

## **Discussion of interview findings**

Taking into account all diverse contributions from respondents, it would not be easy to arrive at something conclusive, except perhaps to assume that disabled children like anybody else have individual differences. It is in this context that what may suit one individual in one environment may not be so with others. For example it is authentic to state that children who are orthopaedically disabled but do not sustain neurological impairments can compete favourably with able-bodied in a classroom situation. On the reverse, children who are cerebral palsied with a high level of severity are likely not to have full access to the mainstream curriculum. It is also equally fair to say that in order for some of these disabled children to gain ground, adjustment to the instructional material is ideal. It is from such strategic explanation that accessibility to the

curriculum and performance of the disabled depends on certain intrinsic and extrinsic factors.

There exists in certain quarters of society the irrational belief that a disability is a curse or misfortune in the family. As a consequence, family members hide their disabled children from public view in order to conceal shame.

Therefore public view has an impact on the social status of disabled children. All in all, early home care and public attitudes are considered cardinal in shaping the disabled child's social maturity.

The concept of inclusive education is the pivotal point of this study. I view the concept as a process without end because it has to do with change of people's attitudes. The same process has started in schools and will eventually catch or be embraced by society at large. In Zambia, a typical experimental model of inclusive education exists in Kalulushi district of the Copperbelt region (the project is referred to as inclusive schooling programme - INSPRO).

From all eight respondents, five were in favour of the concept of inclusive education while the other three seemed to welcome inclusion but had some reservations. No interviewee was completely divorced from the idea. Those completely in favour argued that inclusive education structures children's future life. In other words it prepares children for their future challenges. In its process, children are treated as a family regardless of their difference in abilities. They are observed working together, thus developing co-operative thinking. It was further pointed out that the concept encourages realistic competition regardless of whether one is disabled or not.

Arising from the varying views put forward by interviewees, one would endeavour to make some observations. It would appear that the concept of inclusive education found favour in the minds of respondents in spite of some concerns

levelled against it. Strategically, education is meant to prepare learners for their future life and in the process these learners must appreciate the importance of team work. At the same time, they must learn to compete among themselves as this is one way of realizing their potential.

On the other hand, concerns expressed are genuine and should serve as control measures. If inclusion is to bear tangible results, schools affected need to be adequately staffed with human as well as material resources. Classes need to be reduced to reasonable, manageable levels so that inclusion of the disabled would be ideal and fitting. Finally, the school environment must be disabled friendly as this would instil a sense of self-worth and in turn promote self-esteem in children with disabilities.

Aspirations expressed by various respondents, which are deemed to contribute to implementing inclusive education seem to point to one or two important aspects. Firstly, unless the disabled, able-bodied children and teachers work together as a family, it would be difficult especially for the disabled to realize the essence of being in school. In the process of this team work, school requisites in which all stakeholders must have a share, must be provided.

All interviewees were willing to contribute in one way or the other to the success of inclusive education.

## **Recommendations and conclusion**

From the findings expressed by various respondents based on their practical experience, it can be postulated that for inclusive education to bear positive, quality education, certain criteria have to be adhered to.

Emanating from the data captured from eight interviewees, what follow are recommendations aimed at improving the status of inclusive education in the Zambian context, thus:

1. There should be adequate staffing of inclusive classes with trained human resource.
2. In order to enable graduating teachers to manage inclusive classes, their college curricula should include the component of inclusive education.
3. At whatever level of the education system there is a need to organize sensitization seminars and workshops for education practitioners, parents and the general public.
4. Some old time teachers need to be retrained in order for them to cope with the demands of inclusive education.
5. There should be adequate procurement and effective utilization of material resources by inclusive education institutions.
6. Strong links should be established between home and school in order to adequately cater for the disabled child's needy areas.
7. In order to foster social interaction between disabled and non-disabled counterparts, attitude change must be observed.
8. The school environment should be conducive and friendly in order to meet the aspirations of disabled children and their parents.
9. Parents must take full responsibility over their disabled children especially during early childhood as this has an impact on the child's future development.
10. Large classes existing in most mainstream schools should be reduced to a bearable maximum in order to pave the way for inclusion of disabled children.

Indeed for inclusive education to succeed, teachers must be equipped with necessary skills. Here below are some suggestions to this effect. Teachers should demonstrate love for children, should be able to differentiate and appreciate children's learning abilities. The view was also expressed that the school should design a programme that would accommodate and involve all, including parents and the school staff. All should actively participate in the programme. Other ingredients mentioned included management skills as reflected in the ability to control the class while at the same time exercising flexibility. Another interviewee proposed that teacher training colleges should include the concept of inclusive education in their curricula. This would empower graduate teachers to manage inclusive classes. Another respondent echoed the contribution already alluded to, that teachers can be locally trained using seminar and workshop facilities. If teachers are to succeed in their endeavours, other skills expected of them include resourcefulness which in turn would bring forth needed resources. Unfortunately, as one respondent put it, currently there is very little availability of resources. Consequently, this situation has hampered constructive teaching and learning. Emphasis was also laid on the need for teachers to teach life skills as these would in turn empower children to be independent. It was anticipated that once disabled children are equipped with survival skills their integration and inclusion with mainstream counterparts would not pose much difficulty. This is so because they will be able to fend for themselves and contribute positively to the running of school programmes. It is therefore envisaged that for inclusive education to attain the anticipated level of success, teachers should be in the forefront in spear-heading the revolution. Perhaps one would put it that implementation of inclusive education differs from one environment to another. This is so because

children differ from one another taking into consideration the nature and degree of children's disabilities, attitudes prevailing in school and their differentiated abilities. In view of this scenario, teachers implementing inclusive education need to possess or acquire diverse teaching training and management skills. Unless they are equipped with broad-based skills, some disabled children may not benefit from inclusion practices because some children's needs may fail to be addressed.

It would appear that in some schools, parental involvement in school programmes cannot be doubted while in other situations, it is the opposite. As already alluded to, the school and home are co-runners and managers of children's education. Therefore, schools which are devoid of the expected parental involvement need to do one or two things. Parents should be sensitized by taking advantage of P.T.A and Open Day meetings. During such meetings, the significance of their contributions in the running of the school and its success should be emphasized. On the other hand, the school should create a friendly environment in which parents would feel at home, rated as co-partners and not as objects or instruments for development. For example, there are instances when some schools draw up programmes and just impose them on parents. In such a scenario, parents feel humiliated and, consequently, develop distaste for their involvement in school activities.



## Chapter 8    Final reflections

### Introduction

A key element in the successful implementation of inclusion is the views of those who have the major responsibility for implementing it, that is teachers (Avradis and Norwich, 2002). Teachers' beliefs and attitudes are critical in ensuring the success of inclusive practices because teacher's acceptance of an inclusion policy is liable to influence their commitment to implementation (Norwich, 1994). This notion of the views of teachers who are in the foreground is paramount. For full inclusion to be realized in Zambia, therefore, there is a clear need for teachers to support the policy. Without their support it cannot be achieved.

In this study, teachers' attitudes towards the inclusion for children with disabilities in general education classrooms have been discussed, based on seven attitude statements and considered under six themes. The willingness of participants to accept all children including those with disabilities in the general education classrooms were noted, with general consensus among respondents that all children regardless of their disability should learn together in one environment. This is a first step towards inclusion. There were two items which indicated that participants significantly differed in their attitudes towards inclusion. These were that the hearing and intellectually impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms. Teachers without experience were more positive towards inclusion. However, the majority of respondents registered their concern over the inclusion of these pupils. Speculative reasons for their reservations have already been recorded. In general, female teachers expressed less favourable

feelings towards inclusion than male teachers, but there was no significant difference between the two groups.

### **Influence of social context**

A major, and often undeclared, issue related to inclusion, is that of the social context of Zambia. The population of Zambia was estimated at 10 million in 2000 (CSO, 2000). The country is one of those highly urbanized in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA), with 42% of its population living in towns and cities. According to the Ministry of Education (MOE) (1996) report, the population has been growing at a very fast rate. In the mid-1990s, the rate was 2.7% per annum. About 48% of the Zambian population is below 15 years of age (MOE, 1996). Of this population a third is school-going age (7 - 18 years). These demographic statistics have serious implications for the provision of education. The high rate of population growth implies a continued need for expansion of education services over the long term and in turn, entails provision of adequate financial and human resources to meet the demand.

The population growth is alarming, and an additional consideration for education in general terms, and issues of inclusion with it, is the devastating impact of HIVC/AIDS, with its consequent serious effect on society. In relation to the supply and demand of education, deaths of teachers are rising sharply and have led to a high drop-out and low enrolment figures among pupils due to shortage of teachers. According to available statistics, teachers who died from 'all causes' in 1997 and 1998 were 600 and 1200 respectively (Ministry of Health, 1998). One might speculate that these figures could be more than tripled today. According to Kelly et al (1998) and Kasonde-Ng'andu and Moberg (2001) teachers have been known for infecting their own pupils and members of the surrounding community. Therefore, there is a need for continued sensitization programmes in this respect.

Findings from studies previously done outside Zambia and the current study in Zambia are contradictory in some ways. On one hand the studies agree on some of their findings on inclusion of the disabled in general education classrooms while on the other hand some findings are at variance with each other. Zambia and countries such as the UK, U.S.A, and Canada are located in different environmental settings. Zambia is a developing nation with different culture and traditions. Distinctive features include much bigger classes, a much lower level of teaching/learning materials, many fewer teaching personnel and much poorer school infrastructure. Therefore, the fact that there is a difference between findings is unsurprising.

### **Influence of resource issues**

The twin issues of attitudes to children with disabilities and lack of resources are a major concern in relation to inclusion. Attitudes that are hostile to particular disabilities may prevent resource allocation to those groups and also stand in the way of good will. A review of international literature on teachers' attitudes indicates that those attitudes were found to be strongly influenced by the nature and severity of the disabling condition. Across the world, research appears to indicate that teachers are the most negative towards those pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties and those with learning difficulties. They are much more positive towards children with physical and sensory impairments. In Zambia, there is no separate category of emotional and behavioural difficulties. Instead, pupils with these types of difficulty are generally categorized under 'learning difficulty'. Contrary to the findings of international studies (Avradis and Norwich, 2002), which indicate positive attitudes towards the integration of children with physical and sensory impairments, the present study shows a very negative

attitude towards such children. For example, teachers in the present study seem to view disability such as VI and HI as a severe barrier to education in the mainstream, and these children are not wholeheartedly accepted as suitable for inclusion in general education classrooms. This may mean that teachers view communication problems in HI and Braille writing in VI as the major barrier to inclusion.

Interestingly, the finding of negativity towards such children concurs with Bowman's (1986), UNESCO study of teacher attitudes which was carried out partly in Zambia. This finding may reflect a deep concern about the lack of necessary resources. In an international review of other studies related to inclusion, 'educational environment-related variables, such as the availability of physical and human support, were consistently found to be associated with attitudes to inclusion' (Avradis and Norwich, 2002, p.129). The present study conducted in Zambia, ties in with this notion. It may, however, also reflect the traditional discourse of removal and contamination.

One factor that has been found to be associated with more positive attitudes is the availability of specialist support services (Center and Ward, 1987; Myles and Simpson, 1989; Clough and Lindsay, 1991). It seems reasonable, therefore, to assume that teachers' attitudes would be more positive if more resources and support were available. The major implication for practice is to set up appropriate external support systems and the availability of support within schools to assist individual teachers who ask for guidance. However, in Zambia the situation is complicated. Without resources, creating a specialist support service is impossible.

A further resource-related issue is the distance between home and school which stands as a stumbling block to successful full inclusion of children with disabilities

especially as in 95% of the schools there are no boarding facilities. Some schools try to include children who cannot be brought to school due to the severity of their disabilities by teaching them in their own homes. But such programmes need the full backing of the Ministry of Education. There is a need to convince the managers of education to consider itinerant/outreach programmes as beneficial to those children who cannot be brought to school due to the reasons above.

It may be that resource issues also help to explain the finding related to gender in the present study. Some researchers have noted that female teachers have a greater tolerance level for special needs than male teachers (Aksamit, Morris and Leumberger, 1987; Eichinger, Rizzo and Sirotnik, 1991; Thomas, 1985). This is the opposite with regards to the current study. Male participants recorded more positive activities toward the inclusion of children with disabilities in the general education classroom than did the female teachers. Traditionally in Zambia women have the major responsibility for the day to day welfare of children and it may be that female teachers were particularly concerned with issues of the safety and security of vulnerable children in large classes with few resources. In Zambian culture also, men have much greater freedom of movement than women and so have greater access to formal training and higher education, including recent views of inclusion. This is evidenced in the sample of respondents in the pilot study in the UK where only 7 out of 23 teachers from sub-Saharan Africa who were studying for higher degrees were women. Without this access to higher education and training women are therefore more likely to hold traditional views towards including children with disabilities than men (Tembo, 2001).

## **Influence of teaching experience**

Teaching experience is cited by several studies as influencing teachers' attitudes. 'Younger teachers and those with fewer years of experience have been found to be more supportive to integration (Berryman, 1989; Center and Ward, 1987; Clough and Lindsay, 1991)' (Avradis and Norwich, 2002, p.137). However, other investigators have reported that teaching experience was not significantly related to teachers' attitudes (Avramidis et al., 2000; Leyser, Volkanm and Ilan, 1989; Rogers, 1987; Stephens and Braun, 1980). In general the current study conducted in Zambia concurs with previous studies. In the current study, even though there was a trend for less experienced teachers to support inclusion, no significant difference was recorded between groups by teaching experience.

Knowledge about children with SEN gained through formal studies has been considered an important factor in improving teachers' attitudes towards implementing inclusion policy (Dickens-Smith, 1995). Dickens-Smith concluded that staff development is the key to the success of inclusion. In the current study, comments on the questionnaire revealed that teachers' staff development was at the top of teachers' views of what is needed if inclusion is to be achieved in Zambia.

## **Conclusion**

I started the study by looking at personal experience and how it feels to be marginalized with a lack of access to education. The findings of the study indicate that:

- There is an overall very positive view of the rights of all children, including those with disabilities to education. On the whole almost all teachers accept the principles of inclusion that: "all pupils should be educated in the general education classrooms" and "education is a fundamental right for all children including those with disabilities". However, when it comes to practice, there is division between teachers with experience and those without experience. Teachers without experience are positive to inclusion of these children with disabilities, while teachers with experience are negative to inclusion of children with hearing and visual impairments. The fact that it is the teachers with most experience with the children with particular disabilities (hearing and visual impairments), indicates to me that there is need for more research targeted at these experienced individuals to explore reasons for these attitudes. Secondly, the Ministry of Education should mount special courses and seminars to re-orient the most experienced teachers in their role in an inclusive setting. Experienced teachers do not necessarily have relevant training. None of the teachers that I interviewed had been trained in techniques appropriate for teaching pupils with visual and hearing impairments. Teachers with further training had been trained to teach children with learning disabilities only, as I know from my contact with the two schools. Disabled people should also be re-oriented so that they become aware of their potential in life and how they can contribute to their community and the nation as a whole.
- A number of factors stand in the way of inclusion of children with disabilities as follows:

1. Some respondents revealed that one major barrier to quality education for all children including those with disabilities to be realized is a lack of resources vital to facilitated learning. The Ministry of Education is the only body that is in a position to fund schools and provide appropriate teaching and learning materials for both teachers and children. It may be that for the foreseeable future Zambia has to continue to rely on donor countries for assistance with funding its education system. Currently, the government shares the cost of educating children with families. Families with more than one child may not be willing to spend money on the education of a disabled child. This is one reason why only 1% of disabled children are in schools (Nyambose, 1997). There is even more reason, therefore, why donor countries need to support education in Zambia, to give disabled children a chance of education.
2. A lack of teachers. Teachers are key to the education sector, including the implementation of inclusive education, because they make learning happen. Zambia is experiencing a lack of teachers to implement inclusive education which is at the top of the world's education agenda. This situation has been compounded by the fact that many teachers have died as a result of HIV/AIDS epidemic. To reduce the loss of teachers dying of HIV/AIDS, a vigorous awareness campaign involving all stakeholders including church leaders should be mounted at national, provincial, district, school and community levels. Also the Ministry of Education should mount counselling services for both teachers and children in all districts, schools and communities if attitude change is to be realised;



3. A lack of legislation supporting inclusion of children with disabilities. In Western countries inclusion in mainstream schools is supported by law. In the UK context, for example, 'integration' is strongly associated with the publication of the Warnock Report (1978) where 'the term was viewed as part of a wider movement of 'normalization' in Western countries' (Avradis and Norwich, 2002). Following Warnock a number of Education Acts attempted to translate inclusion theory into practice in England and Wales. Zambian inclusion is influenced by international policies. However, the government promotes educational inclusion but does not support it with law. Current legislation in Zambia does not support the provision of education to children with disabilities sufficiently. The Handicapped Act of 1966 is also silent on inclusive education. This indicates that education for children with disabilities do not have legal backing, making it difficult for families to seek redress when these children are denied their human rights. In countries with a law requiring integration, teachers expressed more favourable views (ranging from 47% to 93%) (Bowman, 1986). The Government's role should therefore be to review the 1966 Act to include the component of inclusive education as part of democratizing the education sector. The Government, too, should revise current educational policy to make it more supportive to inclusive education. Any available legal documents on special education should be translated in the seven local languages and distribute it to all members of the community and traditional leaders for their people;

4. The continuing influence of traditional attitudes to children with disabilities. There is evidence in some studies that these attitudes are changing (Ng'andu and Moberg, 2001; Kalabula, 1992; Bowman, 1996), but this is a slow process. Inclusive education of children with disabilities in general education classrooms is a welcome concept, but for it to yield anticipated, tangible results, in a country like Zambia, there is a lot to be put in place. Studies where teachers have had active experience of inclusion, have often yielded results which favour the inclusion of children with disabilities in ordinary schools. Teacher commitment often emerges following successful implementation of inclusion policy, after teachers have mastered professional expertise needed to implement inclusive programmes. However, in Zambia there are very few resources to initiate such programmes. Further, more experienced teachers were less committed to the practice of inclusion in Zambia than less experienced. This finding may well be related to lack of resources in the country also. Internationally, the goal of inclusion is to promote human rights, social justice and equity. It is also to create positive attitudes and facilitate social interaction, in order to develop the potential of members of society so that they will become active participants in the community. Zambia and the Western world are two unequal partners. They will have to achieve this goal in quite different ways, in that in Zambia, for example, there are inadequate resources while the West seems to have adequate resources and well qualified teachers.

The major finding from this study is that the teachers interviewed overwhelmingly favoured the principle of

inclusion but were less favourable with regard to the practice, in relation to individual pupils with disabilities, in particular to those with hearing and visual impairments. It is interesting to speculate why this may be the case. It may be that teachers offered positive views of inclusion because:

- they may have been influenced by the status of the interviewer as a previous well-known trainer in inclusion and, therefore, they may have repeated back what they felt the interviewer wished to hear
- they may have been painting a positive picture of Zambia for the interviewer to take back to the UK
- they may have been influenced by international rhetoric on inclusion
- they may have been persuaded by human rights issues.

Some other students have found similar results in relation to the ideal of inclusion.

Negative views on inclusion of specific groups may have resulted from:

- awareness of lack of resources
- fear of individual disabilities and influence from traditional attitudes and practices related to 'destroy and hide', or 'removal and contamination'.

Less experienced teachers favoured inclusion more than those with experience in general terms. The implication of this is that, in the Zambian context, experience of inclusion is not helpful in changing attitudes possibly because appropriate resources are not available.

Like everyone else children with disabilities have a role to play in society, but can only discover their roles if they are given the chance to do so. Zambia like any other

developing nation is a society where the message seems to be that people with disabilities are like second-class citizens. They are not regarded as asserts who could contribute to the economy of the family and that of the nation at large. They are viewed as consumers of resources of the country rather than contributors to the society. With inclusive education they too can develop a sense of citizenship and can become more productive members of the community. All children may not be able to attend general education classroom because of the severity of their disabilities. Nevertheless every child should have the opportunity to develop his/her potential to the maximum capacity so that they are able to contribute meaningfully to the national development.

Internationally, the goal of inclusion is to promote human rights, social justice and equity. It is also to create positive attitudes and facilitate social interaction, in order to develop the potential of members of society so that they will become active participants in the community. Zambia and the Western world are two unequal partners. They will have to achieve this goal in quite different ways, in that in Zambia, for example, there are inadequate resources while the West seems to have adequate resources and well qualified teachers.

Inclusive education is more than special educational needs emerging from learning difficulties or disability (Lomofsky et al, 1999). Inclusion is the concept used to describe the process of combating exclusionary attitudes, creating welcoming communities, building an inclusive society and achieving education for all (UNESCO, 1994). Inclusive education is based on a philosophy of democracy, equality and human rights. Hence an inclusive classroom starts with a philosophy that all children can learn and belong in the mainstream of school and community life. Diversity is

valued; it strengthens the class and offers all of its members greater opportunity for learning (Stainback and Stainback, 1990).

While some professionals have no doubt that full inclusion of pupils with disabilities is a desirable way forward, its implementation poses a real challenge. Some teachers deny that general education has the resources and personnel to address the unique educational needs of all pupils, particularly pupils with severe disabilities. In this study the groups seen as least able to be included are those with hearing impairments.

However, inclusive education, as a catalyst for change, provides not only school improvement but also an increased awareness of human rights, which leads to a reduction of discrimination (Engelbrecht, 1999). By finding local answers to complex problems it empowers communities and can lead to wider community development. In Zambia this might include parents and the family. Inclusive education, therefore, for other professionals seem to address a real need, and is a readily understandable concept and requires no new major resources. It primarily involves changes of attitudes and behaviour of professionals involved in its implementation. Indeed inclusive education has the potential to be a very effective starting point for addressing the Rights of the Child in a range of cultures and contexts.

The notion of inclusion has energised policy-makers across the world and has made it possible for national education systems to begin to share experiences with each other.

However, we must be extremely careful to ensure that this does not degenerate into a sort of educational imperialism whereby the version of inclusion that suits a few dominant countries is adopted by education systems for which it is inappropriate. I would argue that that inclusive education will have to develop differently in different educational,

social and economic context. Thomas (1997 p.106) indicates that 'an inclusive philosophy is gaining ground because it chimes with the philosophy of a liberal political system and pluralistic culture, one that celebrates diversity and promotes fraternity and equality of opportunity'. I support Thomas's view and argue that inclusion must be at the heart of any society, which cherishes these values, and at the heart of a truly comprehensive education system.

Since independence in 1964, Zambia has developed three major policy documents. These are:

- Education Reform (1977), which highlights education as an instrument for personal and national development;
- Focus on Learning (1992), which emphasises the need for the mobilisation of resources for the development of Schools; and
- Educating Our Future (1996), which stresses the importance of 'education for all' children in Primary, Secondary and Tertiary education institutions of learning (Tembo, 2001).

In all these documents government has addressed education for children with disabilities, which is a positive move towards the inclusion of these children. What Zambia needs is to enact legislation to support the education policy on this type of education. This is so because the Education Act of 1966 is silent on the education provision for children with disabilities. This implies that education for children with disabilities does not have educational legal backing and this makes it difficult for parents to seek redress when these children are denied their education rights or abused because of their disabilities.





DEAR COLLEAGUES

I AM SEEKING YOUR VIEWS ABOUT INCLUSIVE EDUCATION FOR  
PUPILS WITH DISABILITIES



## INCLUSIVE EDUCATION QUESTIONNAIRE

### Part one:

#### Demographic Information

Please complete the following demographic information questions. Put a tick before the best response, which describes you and your present position. All responses will remain completely confidential.

Name of School: St Christopher's High school

#### School setting:

- ☐ 1. Rural
- ☐ 2. Peri-urban
- ☒ 3. Urban

#### Present position:

- ☐ 1. Head-teacher
- ☐ 2. Deputy Head-teacher
- ☐ 3. Senior-teacher
- ☒ 4. Class-teacher
- ☐ 5. Other, please specify: \_\_\_\_\_

#### Gender:

- ☒ 1. Male
- ☐ 2. Female

#### Highest education attained:

- ☐ 1. Certificate in Primary Education
- ☐ 2. Certificate in Special Education
- ☒ 3. Diploma in Secondary Education
- ☐ 4. Diploma in Special Education
- ☐ 5. BA with Education
- ☐ 6. B. Ed in Special Education
- ☐ 7. MA with Education
- ☐ 8. M. Ed
- ☐ 9. Other, please specify: \_\_\_\_\_

**Age:**

- ☐ 1. Under 25 years
- ☐ 2. 25 - 30 years
- ☒ 3. 31 - 40 years
- ☐ 4. 41 - 50 years
- ☐ 5. 51 - 60 years
- ☐ 6. Over 60 years

**Years of teaching experience:**

- ☐ 1. Less than one year
- ☒ 2. 1 – 5 years
- ☐ 3. 6 - 10 years
- ☐ 4. 11 –15 years
- ☐ 5. Over 16 years

**Are you currently teaching children in an inclusive setting:**

- ☐ 1. Yes
- ☒ 2. No
- ☐ 3. Don't know

**If yes, years of teaching experience in an inclusive setting:**

- ☒ 1. 0 years
- ☐ 2. 1- 2 years
- ☐ 3. 3 – 5 years
- ☐ 4. 6 and over years

**My knowledge of inclusive education is through:**

- ☐ 1. Course work
- ☒ 2. Workshops
- ☐ 3. Seminars
- ☐ 4. Meeting
- ☐ 5. Reading books on the subject
- ☐ 6. Audio-visual and distance education
- ☐ 7. Tick all that apply

**Pupil/teacher ratio in my current school:**

- ☐ 1. Not applicable
- ☐ 2. 1 – 10 pupils per teacher
- ☐ 3. 11- 20 pupils per teacher
- ☐ 4. 21- 30 pupils per teacher
- ☐ 5. 31- 40 pupils per teacher
- ☒ 6. 41- 50 pupils per teacher
- ☐ 7. 51- 60 pupils per teacher
- ☐ 8. Over 60 pupils per teacher

## Part two:

**Directions:** Please read and indicate the degree to which you agree with the following statements. Respond to each statement based on your current thinking using the scale below. Circle a number in statements in the five sections and fill in the space with "any comment" if you have anything to say which is important and not included in the questionnaire.

### Rating scale:

1. strongly disagree
2. disagree
3. neutral
4. agree
5. strongly agree

### Section one

#### How education should be:

1. General education should be available for all pupils.  
1 2 3 **4** 5
2. All pupils should be educated in the general education classrooms to the greatest extent possible. 1 2 3 **4** 5
3. Our school has a comprehensive staff development programme for all teacher 1 2 3 **4** 5
4. Our school has its own policy regarding meeting the needs of all pupils  
1 2 3 **4** 5
5. Ordinary class teachers should have the primary responsibility for the education of all pupils including those with disabilities in their classrooms.  
1 2 3 **4** 5
6. All academic expectations should be the same for all pupils in an inclusive setting. 1 2 3 **4** 5
7. Placing pupils with disability in the general education classrooms means quality education for all 1 2 3 **4** 5
8. Only teachers with specialised training are able to effectively teach all pupils in an inclusive setting. **1** 2 3 4 5
9. Curriculum aimed at promoting inclusion should be as flexible as possible.  
1 2 3 4 **5**
10. Participation of all pupils should be a priority in an inclusive setting.  
1 2 3 4 **5**

11. Class size should be reduced to effectively promote inclusion of pupils with disabilities in the general education classroom 1 2 3 ④ 5

12. Successful inclusion depends entirely on the co-operation of support teacher 1 2 3 4 ⑤

## Section two

### Attitudes to disability and pupils' rights:

1. Disabled children are a bad omen to the family and community as whole.

① 2 3 4 5

2. Education is a fundamental right for all children including those with disabilities 1 2 3 4 ⑤

3. Children with disability are the same as non-disabled peers. 1 ② 3 4 5

4. Education is a fundamental right for all children including those with disabilities. 1 2 3 ④ 5

4 5. Physically disabled pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms. 1 2 3 ④ 5

5 6. Intellectually impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms. 1 2 3 ④ 5

6 7. Visually impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms. 1 2 ③ 4 5

7 8. Hearing-impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms. 1 2 ③ 4 5

### Section three

#### Teaching experience:

1. I have experience with pupils with visual impairments in the general education classrooms. 1 ☒ 2 3 4 5
2. I have experience with pupils with hearing impairments in the general education classrooms. 1 2 3 ☒ 4 5
3. I have experience with pupils with physical impairments in the general education classrooms. 1 2 3 ☒ 4 5
4. I have no experience with pupils with disabilities in the general education classroom. 1 ☒ 2 3 4 5
5. I have experience with pupils with intellectual impairment in the general education classrooms. 1 2 3 ☒ 4 5
6. I have experience with pupils with disabilities in segregated units.  
1 ☒ 2 3 4 5
7. In our school all pupils engage in similar activities at the same time.  
1 2 3 ☒ 4 5
8. In our school all pupils receive the aid of the teacher as needed and are provided with immediate positive feedback within the general education classroom setting. 1 2 3 ☒ 4 5
9. In our school all pupils are made to feel welcome and seen as participating members of a general education classroom environment. 1 2 3 ☒ 4 5
10. In our school all pupils' successes are celebrated equally. 1 2 3 ☒ 4 5
11. In our school all pupils assist each other in the process of learning  
1 ☒ 2 3 4 5
12. I am now or have been successful in meeting diverse needs in the general education classroom. 1 2 3 ☒ 4 5

## Section four

### How education is:

1. In our school teachers are provided with adequate time to plan together for the benefit of all pupils. 1 2 3 4 5
2. In our school the staff is able to collaborate on educational issues.  
1 2 3 4 5
3. Our school has adequate teaching/learning resources to meet the needs of all pupils. 1 2 3 4 5
4. Improved salaries and condition of service for teachers and other support staff would be an effective strategy for promoting inclusive education.  
1 2 3 4 5
5. In our school all teachers have opportunity to go for extra training to update themselves with the recent trends, development and practice in education. 1 2 3 4 5

### ANY COMMENT?

If teachers could be allowed to go for  
further training with regard to teaching  
disabled children our teaching would  
improve & we could plan better for the benefit  
of all pupils.

**THANK YOU FOR YOUR SUPPORT AND CO-OPERATION**





**DEAR COLLEAGUES**

**I AM SEEKING YOUR VIEWS ABOUT INCLUSIVE EDUCATION FOR  
PUPILS WITH DISABILITIES**



**Part one:**

**Demographic Information**

Please complete the following demographic information questions. Put a tick before the best response, which describes you and your present position. All responses will remain completely confidential.

Name of School: Woodland

**1. School setting:**

- ☐ 1. Rural
- ☐ 2. Peri-urban
- ☒ 3. Urban

**2. Present position:**

- ☐ 1. Head-teacher
- ☐ 2. Deputy Head-teacher
- ☒ 3. Senior-teacher
- ☐ 4. Class-teacher
- ☐ 5. Other, please specify: \_\_\_\_\_

**3. Gender:**

- ☐ 1. Male
- ☒ 2. Female

**4. Highest education attained:**

- ☐ 1. Certificate in Primary Education
- ☐ 2. Certificate in Special Education
- ☐ 3. Diploma in Secondary Education
- ☐ 4. Diploma in Special Education
- ☐ 5. BA with Education
- ☐ 6. B. Ed in Special Education
- ☐ 7. MA with Education
- ☒ 8. M. Ed
- ☒ 9. Other, please specify: DIPLOMA IN PRIMARY EDUCATION

**5. Age:**

- ☐ 1. Under 25 years
- ☐ 2. 25 - 30 years
- ☐ 3. 31 - 40 years
- ☐ 4. 41 - 50 years
- ☒ 5. 51 - 60 years
- ☐ 6. Over 60 years

**6. Type of training acquired:**

- ☒ 1. Primary ordinary education
- ☐ 2. Secondary ordinary education
- ☐ 3. Ordinary and special education

**7. Years of teaching experience:**

- ☐ 1. Less than one year
- ☐ 2. 1 – 5 years
- ☐ 3. 6 - 10 years
- ☐ 4. 11 –15 years
- ☒ 5. Over 16 years

**8. Are you currently teaching children in an inclusive setting:**

- ☐ 1. Yes
- ☒ 2. No
- ☐ 3. Don't know

**9. INSET programmes attended on inclusive education:**

- ☐ 1. Course work
- ☐ 2. Workshops
- ☐ 3. Seminars
- ☐ 4. Meetings
- ☐ 5. Reading books on the subject
- ☒ 6. Audio-visual and distance education

**10. Pupil/teacher ratio in my current school:**

- ☐ 1. Not applicable
- ☐ 2. 1 – 10 pupils per teacher
- ☐ 3. 11- 20 pupils per teacher
- ☐ 4. 21- 30 pupils per teacher
- ☐ 5. 31- 40 pupils per teacher
- ☒ 6. 41- 50 pupils per teacher
- ☐ 7. 51- 60 pupils per teacher
- ☐ 8. Over 60 pupils per teacher

**Part two:**

**Directions:** Please read and indicate the degree to which you agree with the following statements. Respond to each statement based on your current thinking using the scale below. Circle a number in statements in the five sections and fill in the space with "any comment" if you have anything to say on how we can successfully promote inclusive education.

### Rating scale:

1. strongly disagree
2. disagree
3. neutral
4. agree
5. strongly agree

### Section one

#### How education should be:

1. All pupils should be educated in the general education classrooms to the greatest extent possible. ① 2 3 4 5
2. All class teachers should have the primary responsibility for the education of all pupils including those with disabilities in their classrooms. 1 2 3 4 ⑤
3. All academic expectations should be the same for all pupils in an inclusive setting. 1 2 3 4 ⑤
4. Curriculum aimed at promoting inclusion should be as flexible as possible. 1 2 3 4 ⑤
5. Class size should be reduced to effectively promote inclusion of pupils with disabilities in the general education classroom 1 2 3 4 ⑤

### Section two

#### Attitudes to disability and pupils' rights:

1. Education is a fundamental right for all children including those with disabilities 1 2 3 4 ⑤
2. Physically disabled pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms. 1 2 3 4 ⑤
3. Intellectually impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms. 1 2 3 4 ⑤
4. Visually impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms. ① 2 3 4 5
5. Hearing-impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms. ① 2 3 4 5

### Section three

#### Teaching experience:

1. I have experience with pupils with visual impairments in the general education classrooms. ① 2 3 4 5
2. I have experience with pupils with hearing impairments in the general education classrooms. ① 2 3 4 5
3. I have experience with pupils with physical impairments in the general education classrooms. 1 2 3 4 ⑤
4. I have experience with pupils with disabilities in the general education classroom. 1 ② 3 4 5
5. I have experience with pupils with intellectual impairment in the general education classrooms. 1 2 3 4 ⑤

### Section four

#### How education is:

1. In our school teachers are provided with adequate time to plan together for the benefit of all pupils. 1 ② 3 4 5
2. Our school has adequate teaching/learning resources to meet the needs of all pupils. 1 ② 3 4 5
3. In our school all teachers have opportunity to go for extra training to update themselves with the recent trends, development and practice in education. 1 2 3 4 ⑤
4. In our school all pupils are made to feel welcome and seen as participating members of a general education classroom environment. 1 2 3 4 ⑤
5. I am now or have been successful in meeting diverse needs in the general education classroom. 1 2 3 ④ 5

#### ANY COMMENT?

If inclusive education is to be promoted in schools, all teachers should as well be trained properly in special education, and machines like for blind pupils to be in schools and machines for hearing impaired pupils to be as well in schools.

THANK YOU FOR YOUR SUPPORT AND CO-OPERATION



## **Appendix 2**

### **Final interview schedule for teachers**

#### **Introduction**

My name is Albert TEMBO a lecturer at the Zambia Institute of Special Education (ZAMISE). I am currently at the Open University (OU) in England for further studies. I thought it would be a good idea to interview you on the inclusion of children with disabilities, so that I may inform policy about your feelings as a teacher.

I hope to use this information to complete my studies at the Open University. It will also help me to inform policy and possibly make schools better learning environments that will accept all children regardless of their disability, gender, ethnicity, etc.

This interview should take about one hour. I hope you will willingly assist me with the information (data) needed.

#### **Questions**

##### *Experience*

1. Tell me something about your teaching career, from the time you started the grade and type of children you have taught and their age range and any memorable experience you have had in your teaching?
- Tell me more about teaching experience and abilities of children you have experience with?
  - Tell me what is your approach regarding teaching children whose performance is below average in your class?
  - How many children with disabilities did you have or you have in your class?

- What kind of disabilities do the children have?
- Tell me how you manage the class with all children types of children?
- Are there advantages and disadvantages of teaching children with disabilities?
- When you are teaching children with and without disabilities is your teaching different in any way?
- What views do you have as teacher on academic achievement of children with disabilities?
- What do you see with children with disabilities accessing the curriculum?
- What strengths and weaknesses do children with disabilities have in making friendships?

**Anything that you want to say or ask me?**

I have some more questions here but I am not sure if they have been covered already. I thought we could skim them through them quickly.

***Inclusive education***

2. Tell me how do you feel about the concept of inclusive education?

- As a teacher what role did you play or you are playing in this process?
- What advantages or disadvantages does this approach have over other teaching approaches that you have used?
- Using you experience as a teacher, do you think all children participate and have access to quality education in an inclusive setting?
- What skills do you feel you have for teaching all children in one learning environment?

Anything that you want to say or ask me?

Factors

3. What do you think should be done in order for Zambia to be successful in the implementation of the inclusive education initiative?

- How would you describe parental involvement in this school?
- How has the DEO helped inclusive education in this school?

Do you have anything else you would possibly like to share with me about your experience, inclusive education or how we can successfully promote inclusive education in Zambia? Do you have any question that you would like to ask me?

It has been a pleasure interviewing you about how you feel about inclusive education in Zambia. I appreciate the time you took for this interview.

THANK YOU

Key ideas

- |                 |               |                      |           |
|-----------------|---------------|----------------------|-----------|
| 1. Human rights | 2. Strategies | 3. Participation     | 4. Debate |
| 5. Barriers     | 6. Factors    | 7. Inclusion         | 8. Policy |
| 9. Experience   | 10. Exclusion | 11. Social inclusion | 12.       |
| Segregated      |               |                      |           |
| 13.             |               |                      |           |





Appendix 3

Statistical analysis for Fig.2

General education should be available for all pupils

Gender	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
male	16	11.84	189.50
female	7	12.36	86.50
Total	23		

Test Statistics

General education should be available for all pupils	
Mann-Whitney U	53.500
Wilcoxon W	189.500
Z	-.208
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.835
Exact Sig. [2*(1-tailed Sig.)]	.871
a Not corrected for ties.	
b Grouping Variable: gender	

There is no significance between the attitudes of males and females towards this question item.

Statistical analysis for Fig. 6

Disabled children are a bad omen to family and community

Gender	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
male	16	12.31	197.00
female	7	11.29	79.00
Total	23		

Test Statistics

Disabled children are a bad omen to family and community	
Mann-Whitney U	51.000
Wilcoxon W	79.000
Z	-.464
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.643
Exact Sig. [2*(1-tailed Sig.)]	.769
a Not corrected for ties.	
b Grouping Variable: gender	

Statistical analysis for Fig. 11

Have experience of physical impairments

Gender	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
male	16	12.00	192.00
female	7	12.00	84.00
<b>Total</b>	<b>23</b>		

Test Statistics

Have experience of physical impairments	
Mann-Whitney U	56.000
Wilcoxon W	84.000
Z	.000
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	1.000
Exact Sig. [2*(1-tailed Sig.)]	1.000
a Not corrected for ties.	
b Grouping Variable: gender	

Statistical analysis for Fig. 16

Teachers are provided with adequate time to plan

Gender	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
male	16	10.47	167.50
female	7	15.50	108.50
<b>Total</b>	<b>23</b>		

Test Statistics

Teachers are provided with adequate time to plan	
Mann-Whitney U	31.500
Wilcoxon W	167.500
Z	-1.688
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.091
Exact Sig. [2*(1-tailed Sig.)]	.103
a Not corrected for ties.	
b Grouping Variable: gender	

Frequency Table

Present Position

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	headteacher	2	3.3	3.3	3.3
	seniorteacher	6	10.0	10.0	13.3
	classteacher	52	86.7	86.7	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

Gender

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	11	18.3	18.3	18.3
	Female	49	81.7	81.7	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

Highest education attained

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Certificate in Primary Education	3	5.0	5.0	5.0
	Certificate in Special Education	11	18.3	18.3	23.3
	Diploma in Secondary Education	23	38.3	38.3	61.7
	Diploma in Special Education	16	26.7	26.7	88.3
	BA with Education	7	11.7	11.7	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

age

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	under 25	33	55.0	55.0	55.0
	25 - 30	5	8.3	8.3	63.3
	31-40	11	18.3	18.3	81.7
	41-50	7	11.7	11.7	93.3
	51-60	4	6.7	6.7	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

Type of training acquired

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Primary Ordinary Education	45	75.0	75.0	75.0
	Secondary Ordinary Education	7	11.7	11.7	86.7
	Ordinary and Special Education	8	13.3	13.3	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

### Years of teaching experience

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Less than one year	1	1.7	1.7	1.7
	1-5 years	14	23.3	23.3	25.0
	6 - 10 years	10	16.7	16.7	41.7
	11- 15 years	10	16.7	16.7	58.3
	Over 16 years	25	41.7	41.7	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

### Are you teaching in an inclusive setting

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	22	36.7	36.7	36.7
	No	38	63.3	63.3	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

### INSET programmes attended on inclusive education

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Course work	5	8.3	8.3	8.3
	Workshops	19	31.7	31.7	40.0
	Seminar	7	11.7	11.7	51.7
	Meetings	11	18.3	18.3	70.0
	Reading Books on the subject	18	30.0	30.0	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

### Pupil/teacher ratio in my current school

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1- 10 pupils per teacher	2	3.3	3.3	3.3
	11- 20 pupils per teacher	2	3.3	3.3	6.7
	31 -40 pupils per teacher	4	6.7	6.7	13.3
	41 -50 pupils per teacher	23	38.3	38.3	51.7
	51-60 pupils per teacher	29	48.3	48.3	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

## Theme 1

All pupils should be educated in the general education classrooms to the greatest extent possible

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	6	10.0	10.0	10.0
	Disagree	12	20.0	20.0	30.0
	Neutral	3	5.0	5.0	35.0
	Agree	18	30.0	30.0	65.0
	Strongly Agree	21	35.0	35.0	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

I class-teachers should have the primary responsibility for the education of all pupils including those with disabilities in their classrooms

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly Disagree	6	10.0	10.0	10.0
Disagree	6	10.0	10.0	20.0
Agree	31	51.7	51.7	71.7
Strongly Agree	17	28.3	28.3	100.0
Total	60	100.0	100.0	

academic expectations should be the same for all pupils in an inclusive setting

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly Disagree	6	10.0	10.0	10.0
Disagree	18	30.0	30.0	40.0
Neutral	1	1.7	1.7	41.7
Agree	13	21.7	21.7	63.3
Strongly Agree	22	36.7	36.7	100.0
Total	60	100.0	100.0	

Curriculum aimed at promoting inclusion should be as flexible as possible

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Neutral	3	5.0	5.0	5.0
Agree	31	51.7	51.7	56.7
Strongly Agree	26	43.3	43.3	100.0
Total	60	100.0	100.0	

Class-size should be reduced to effectively promote inclusion of pupils with disabilities in the general education classrooms

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly Disagree	1	1.7	1.7	1.7
Disagree	3	5.0	5.0	6.7
Neutral	1	1.7	1.7	8.3
Agree	16	26.7	26.7	35.0
Strongly Agree	39	65.0	65.0	100.0
Total	60	100.0	100.0	

eme 2

ication is a fundamental right for all children including those with disabilities

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Disagree	1	1.7	1.7	1.7
Agree	7	11.7	11.7	13.3
Strongly Agree	52	86.7	86.7	100.0
Total	60	100.0	100.0	

Physically disabled pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	3	5.0	5.0	5.0
	Disagree	4	6.7	6.7	11.7
	Neutral	5	8.3	8.3	20.0
	Agree	22	36.7	36.7	56.7
	Strongly Agree	26	43.3	43.3	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

Intellectually impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	5	8.3	8.3	8.3
	Disagree	19	31.7	31.7	40.0
	Neutral	3	5.0	5.0	45.0
	Agree	23	38.3	38.3	83.3
	Strongly Agree	10	16.7	16.7	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

Visually impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	17	28.3	28.3	28.3
	Disagree	15	25.0	25.0	53.3
	Neutral	6	10.0	10.0	63.3
	Agree	13	21.7	21.7	85.0
	Strongly Agree	9	15.0	15.0	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

Hearing impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	23	38.3	38.3	38.3
	Disagree	17	28.3	28.3	66.7
	Neutral	3	5.0	5.0	71.7
	Agree	7	11.7	11.7	83.3
	Strongly Agree	10	16.7	16.7	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

Theme 3

I have experience with pupils with visual impairments in the general education classrooms

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	22	36.7	36.7	36.7
	Disagree	18	30.0	30.0	66.7
	Neutral	2	3.3	3.3	70.0
	Agree	14	23.3	23.3	93.3
	Strongly Agree	4	6.7	6.7	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

ve experience with pupils with hearing impairments in the general education classrooms

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	20	33.3	33.3	33.3
	Disagree	22	36.7	36.7	70.0
	Neutral	3	5.0	5.0	75.0
	Agree	11	18.3	18.3	93.3
	Strongly Agree	4	6.7	6.7	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

ve experience with pupils with physical impairments in the general education classrooms

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	6	10.0	10.0	10.0
	Disagree	17	28.3	28.3	38.3
	Neutral	5	8.3	8.3	46.7
	Agree	19	31.7	31.7	78.3
	Strongly Agree	13	21.7	21.7	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

ave experience with pupils with disabilities in the general education classrooms

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	13	21.7	21.7	21.7
	Disagree	18	30.0	30.0	51.7
	Neutral	4	6.7	6.7	58.3
	Agree	17	28.3	28.3	86.7
	Strongly Agree	8	13.3	13.3	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

ve experience with pupils with intellectual impairments in the general education classrooms

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Agree	9	15.0	15.0	15.0
	Disagree	11	18.3	18.3	33.3
	Neutral	5	8.3	8.3	41.7
	Agree	21	35.0	35.0	76.7
	Strongly Agree	14	23.3	23.3	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

In our schools pupils are made to feel welcome and seen as participating  
bers of the general education classroom environment

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
id	Strongly Disagree	3	5.0	5.0	5.0
	Disagree	1	1.7	1.7	6.7
	Neutral	4	6.7	6.7	13.3
	Agree	29	48.3	48.3	61.7
	Strongly Agree	23	38.3	38.3	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

I am now or have been successful in meeting diverse needs in the general  
ation classroom

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
--	--	-----------	---------	---------------	--------------------



Valid	Strongly Disagree	6	10.0	10.0	10.0
	Disagree	8	13.3	13.3	23.3
	Neutral	15	25.0	25.0	48.3
	Agree	24	40.0	40.0	88.3
	Strongly Agree	7	11.7	11.7	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

### Theme 4

In our schools teachers are provided with adequate time to plan together for the benefit of all pupils

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	9	15.0	15.0	15.0
	Disagree	8	13.3	13.3	28.3
	Neutral	9	15.0	15.0	43.3
	Agree	24	40.0	40.0	83.3
	Strongly Agree	10	16.7	16.7	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

Our school has adequate teaching/learning resources to meet the needs of all pupils

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	18	30.0	30.0	30.0
	Disagree	22	36.7	36.7	66.7
	Neutral	6	10.0	10.0	76.7
	Agree	12	20.0	20.0	96.7
	Strongly Agree	2	3.3	3.3	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

In our school all teachers have opportunity to go for extra training to update themselves with the recent trends, development and practice in education

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	8	13.3	13.3	13.3
	Disagree	6	10.0	10.0	23.3
	Neutral	1	1.7	1.7	25.0
	Agree	25	41.7	41.7	66.7
	Strongly Disagree	20	33.3	33.3	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

In our schools pupils are made to feel welcome and seen as participating members of the general education classroom environment

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	3	5.0	5.0	5.0
	Disagree	1	1.7	1.7	6.7
	Neutral	4	6.7	6.7	13.3
	Agree	29	48.3	48.3	61.7
	Strongly Agree	23	38.3	38.3	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

experience of VI

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1.00	39	65.0	65.0	65.0
	2.00	21	35.0	35.0	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

experience of HI

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1.00	33	55.0	55.0	55.0
	2.00	27	45.0	45.0	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

experience of PI

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1.00	30	50.0	50.0	50.0
	2.00	30	50.0	50.0	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

experience of DIS

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1.00	30	50.0	50.0	50.0
	2.00	30	50.0	50.0	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

experience of ID

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1.00	25	41.7	41.7	41.7
	2.00	35	58.3	58.3	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	



Appendix 5

Statistical Analysis for Figure 26

Ranks				
	Gender	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
All pupils should be educated in the general education to the extent possible	Male	49	32.27	355.00
	Female	11	30.10	1475.00
	Total	60		

Test Statistics a

	All pupils should be educated in the general education classrooms to the greatest extent possible
Mann-Whitney U	250.000
Wilcoxon	1475.000
Z	-.388
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.698

a. Grouping Variable: Gender

There is no significance difference between attitudes of males towards this question item.

Statistical Analysis for Figure 27

Ranks

	Gender	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
All class-teachers should have primary responsibility for the education of all pupils including those with disabilities in their classrooms	Male	11	26.82	295.00
	Female	49	31.33	1535.00
	Total	60		

Test Statistics a

	All class-teacher should have the primary responsibility for the education of all pupils including those with disabilities in their classrooms
Mann-Whitney U	229.000
Wilcoxon W	295.000
Z	-.845
Asymp. Sig. (2tailed)	.398

a. Grouping Variable: gender

There is no significance difference between attitudes of males towards this question item.

**Statistical Analysis for Figure 28**

**Ranks**

	Gender	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Education is a fundamental right for all children including those with disabilities	Male	11	31.45	346.00
	Female	49	30.29	1484.00
	Total	60		

**Test Statistics a**

	Education is a fundamental right for all children including those with disabilities
Mann-Whitney U	259.000
Wilcoxon W	1484.000
Z	-.340
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.734

**Grouping Variable: gender**

**There is no significance difference between attitudes of males and females towards this item.**

**Statistical Analysis for Figure 29**

**Ranks**

	Gender	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Physically disabled pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms	Male	11	32.77	360.50
	Female	49	29.99	1469.50
	Total	60		

**Test Statistics a**

	Physically disabled pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms
Mann-Whitney U	244.500
Wilcoxon W	1469.500
Z	-.512
Asymp. Sig. (2tailed)	.608

**There is no significance difference between attitudes of males and females towards this item.**

Statistical Analysis for Figure 30

Ranks

	Gender	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Rank
Intellectual impaired pupil have the right to be educated in the general educated classrooms	Male	11	31.27	344.00
	Female	49	30.33	1486.00
	Total	60		

Test Statistics a

	Intellectually impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms
Mann-Whitney U	261.000
Wilcoxon W	1486.000
Z	-.171
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.865

a. Grouping Variable: Gender

There is no significance difference between attitudes of males and females towards this item.



**Statistical Analysis for Figure 31**

**Ranks**

	Gender	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Visually impaired pupils have the right to be education in the general education classrooms	Male	11	36.55	402.00
	Female	49	29.14	1428.00
	Total	60		

**Test Statistics a**

	Visually impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms
Mann-Whitney U	203.000
Wilcoxon W	1428.000
Z	-1.305
Asymp. Sig. (2tailed)	.023

a. Grouping Variable: Gender

**There is no significance difference between attitudes of males and females towards this question item.**

Statistical Analysis for Figure 32

Ranks				
	Gender	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Hearing impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms	Male	11	40.82	449.00
	Female	49	28.18	1381.00
	Total	60		

Test Statistics a

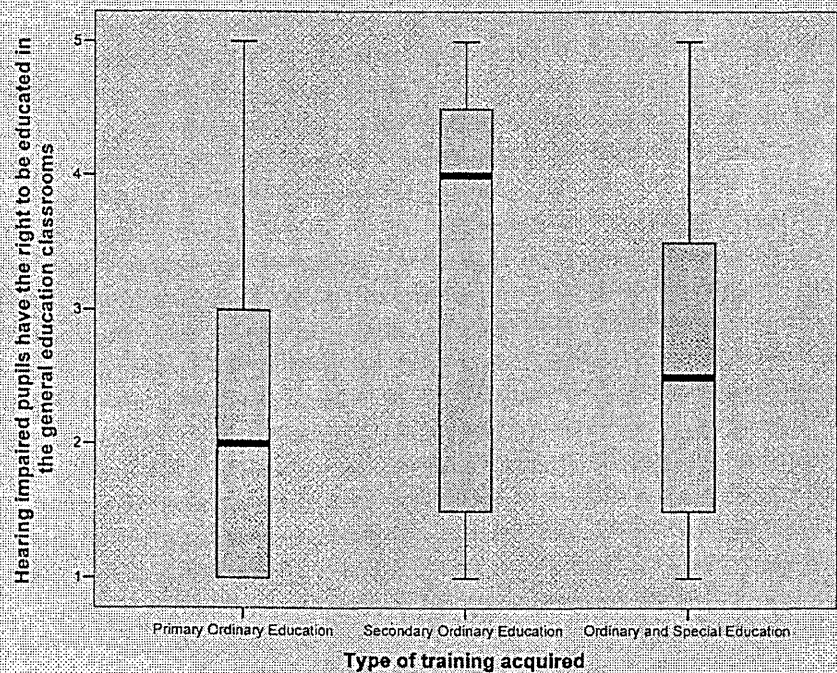
	Hearing impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms
Mann-Whitney U	156.000
Wilcoxon W	1381.000
Z	-2.267
Asymp. Sig (2-tailed)	.023

There is significance difference between attitudes of males and females towards this question item.



Appendix 6

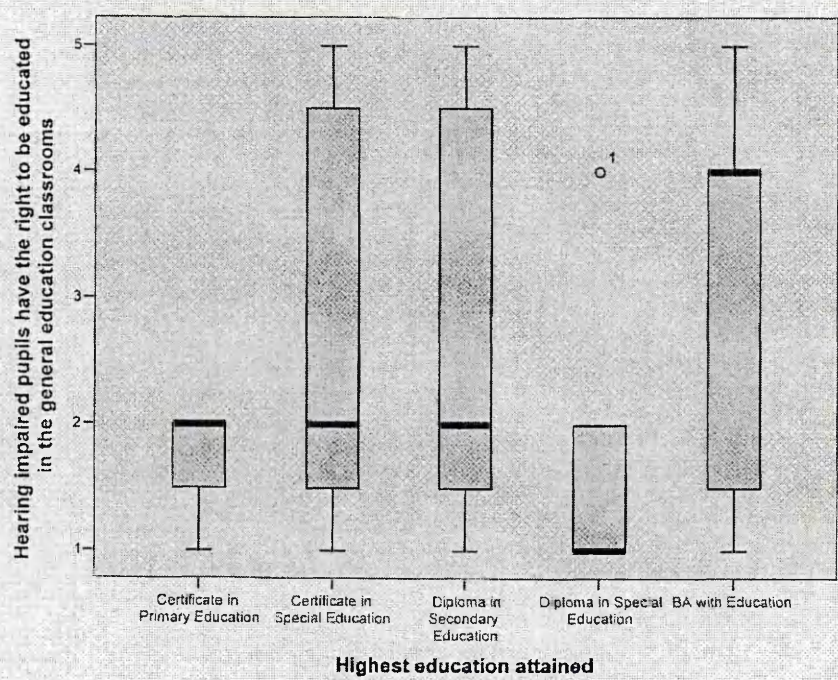
Hearing impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms





# Appendix 7

Hearing impaired pupils have the right to be educated in the general education classrooms





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